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CARROLL'S

Elementary Grammar,

BEING AN ABRIDGMENT

OF

Carroll's New English Grammar,

DESIGNED FOR

PUPILS AND OTHER PERSONS BEGINNING THE STUDY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR,

BY

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ASSISTED BY

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PREFACE.

The many suggestions made by various educators and teachers that my large Grammar is not adapted for the use of beginners, and the wishes expressed that I would prepare an elementary work for the younger class of learners, have induced me to compile this abridgment which, I trust, will be found sufficiently simple for the primary classes, and of sufficient scope to enable those pupils, who cannot spare the time to go through a full course, to acquire such a knowledge of the true principles of the language as will enable them to perform the duties of their respective stations in life to the entire satisfaction of those with whom they will be associated. All experience proves that no system of teaching is so well calculated to insure success, as that which is accompanied by explicit and appropriate illustrations of the principles inculcated. A short example will often give a clearer conception of a precept, than the most explicit words could convey. For this reason it has been thought proper to adopt an exercise to each chapter and section throughout the work, so that the pupil, at every stage of his progress, may have a practical illustration of the portion under his immediate study. By this arrangement it is believed that the present abridgment will, in a great measure, facilitate the progress of youth in the march of mental improvement, and prepare pupils for the study of my larger work.

JOHN CARROLL, A. M.

Little Rock, Ark., February, 1890.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Question.—What does English Grammar teach?

Answer.—**English Grammar** teaches us to speak and write the English Language correctly.

Q.—Of how many parts is it composed?

A.—English Grammar is composed of four parts, namely: 1st, Orthography; 2nd, Etymology; 3rd, Syntax, and 4th, Prosody.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Q.—What does Orthography include and teach?

A.—**Orthography** includes a knowledge of the nature and power of letters and teaches how to spell words correctly. It treats, 1st, of *Letters;* 2nd, of *Syllables*, and 3d, of *Words.*

Q.—What is the nature of a letter?

A.—The nature of a letter is to be a character or mark, expressive of a simple elementary sound.

Q.—What is the power of a letter?

A.—The power of a letter is the change which the addition or diminution of a letter in a word causes in some other letter in that word. As, *hat*, *hate*, *fate*, *fat.**

Q.—What does the word orthography mean?

A.—Orthography means *word-making* or spelling; and is usually learned from spelling-books and dictionaries.

* For a full explanation see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 14.

1.—Letters.

Q.—What is a letter?

A.—A letter is the first principle, or least part of a word. The English alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

Q.—How are letters divided?

A.—Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

Q.—What is a vowel, and which letters are vowels?

A.—**A Vowel** is a letter that can be perfectly sounded by itself. The vowels are *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y; w* and *y* are consonants when they begin a word or syll ı-ble, or when they precede a vowel sound in the same syllable, but in every other situation they are vowels.

Q.—What is a consonant, and which are they?

A.—**A Consonant** is a letter that cannot be fully sounded without the aid of a vowel, as *b*, *d*, *f*, *l*. All letters, except the vowels, are consonants.

Q.—How are consonants divided?

A.—Consonants are divided into *mutes* and *semi-vowels.*

Q.—What is said of the mutes, and which are they?

A.—The mutes cannot be sounded *at all* without the aid of a vowel. They are *b*, *p*, *t*, *d*, *k*, *q*, and *c* and *g*, hard.

Q.—What is said of semi-vowels, and which are they?

A.—The semi-vowels have an imperfect sound of themselves. They are *f*, *j*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *s*, *v*, *x*, *z*, and *c* and *g* soft, and *w* and *y* when they are not vowels.

Q.—Which of the semi-vowels are called liquids, and why?

A.—Four of the semi-vowels, namely, *l*, *m*, *n* and *r*, are also called *liquids*, because they readily unite with other consonants, and flow, as it were, into their sounds.

Q.—In naming the mutes and semi-vowels, what occurs?

A.—In naming the mutes, the accompanying vowels generally follow, as *be*, *pe;* in naming the semi-vowels, the accompanying vowels precede, as *ef*, *el.*

Q.—How is the voice affected in sounding the mutes and semi-vowels?

A.—In sounding the mutes, the voice is stopped short, as in *up;* in sounding the semi-vowels, the voice may be prolonged, as in *al.*

Q.—How are consonants classed with regard to the vocal organs?

A.—The consonants are also divided, according to the part of the vocal organs by which they are formed. The principal divisions of this sort are *labials*, *dentals*, *palatals*, *gutturals*, *nasals* and *linguals.*

Q.—By which vocal organs are the *labials*, *dentals*, *palatals*, *gutturals*, *nasals* and *linguals* chiefly formed?

A.—Labials are formed chiefly by the *lips*, Dentals by the *teeth*, Palatals by the *palate*, Gutturals by the *throat*, Nasals by the *nose*, and Linguals by the *tongue.*

Q.—What letters are called *labials*, *dentals*, *palatals*, *gutturals*, *nasals* and *linguals?*

A.—The Labials are *p*, *b*, *f*, *v;* the Dentals *t*, *d*, *c*, soft, *s* and *z;* the Palatals *g* soft, and *j;* the Gutturals *k*, *q* and *c*, and *g* hard; the Nasals *m* and *n;* and the Linguals *l* and *r.*

Q.—What is a diphthong?

A.—**A Diphthong** is the union of *two* vowels, pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, as *oi* in voice, *ou* in sound.

Q.—What is a proper diphthong?

A.—**A Proper Diphthong** is one in which both the vowels are sounded, as *oi* in *loin*, *ou* in *found.*

Q.—What is an improper diphthong?

A.—**An Improper Diphthong** is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded, as *ea* in *beat*, *oa* in *boat.*

Q.—What is a triphthong?

A.—**A Triphthong** is the union of three vowels in one sound, as *eau* in *beau*, *iew* in *view.*

Q.—What is a proper triphthong?

A.—**A Proper Triphthong** is one in which all the vowels are sounded, as *uoy* in *buoy*.

Q.—What is an improper triphthong?

A.—**An Improper Triphthong** is one in which all the vowels are not sounded, as *eau* in *beauty*, *iew* in *review*.

Q.—How is the vowel *u* after *q* considered?

A.—*U* after *q* is never considered as part of a diphthong or of a triphthong.

2.—Syllables.

Q.—What is a syllable?

A.—A syllable is a disinct sound, either simple or compound, uttered by a single impulse of the voice, constituting a word, or part of a word, as *a*, *an*, *ant*.

Q.—What are all words termed, respecting their number of syllables?

A.—A word of one syllable is termed a *monosyllable*; a word of two syllables a *dissyllable*; a word of three syllables a *trisyllable*; and a word of four or more syllables a *polysyllable*.

Q.—How is the number of syllables in a word determined, and what is the division of words into syllables called?

A.—There are as many syllables in a word as there are vowels and diphthongs, not counting those which are silent or unsounded; and the division of words into syllables is called *Syllabication*.

3.—Words.

Q.—What are words?

A.—Words are articulate sounds, used by common consent, as signs of our ideas.

Q.—How are words classed, with regard to their origin?

A.—All words are either *primitive*, *derivative*, *or compound*.

Q.—What is a primitive word?

A.—A *primitive* word is that which cannot be reduced to a simpler word in the language, as *man*, *good*, *content*.

Q.—What is a derivative word?

A.—A *derivative* word is that which may be reduced to a simpler word, as *manful*, *goodness*, *contentment*.

Q.—What is a compound word?

A.—A *compound* word is one which is composed of two or more words, as *school-master*, *ink-stand*.

Q.—How may compound words in common use be written?

A.—Compound words in common use may have their component parts united together, and may be written as single words, as *inkstand*, or they may be separated by a hyphen, as *rail-road*, *glass-house*, *bee-hive*.

Q.—How may a word be divided at the end of a line in writing?

A.—In writing, a word of more than one syllable may be divided at the end of a line, but a monosyllable, or a syllable, never.

THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

A.—A has four sounds, the long, as in *name*, *basin*; the broad, as in *call*, *wall*; the short, as in *fat*, *hat*; and the flat, Italian sound, as in *bar*, *far*, *farther*.

The improper diphthong, *aa*, has the short sound of *a* in *Balaam*, *Canaan*, *Isaac;* and the long sound of *a* in *Baal*, *Gaal*, *Aaron*.

The Latin diphthong *æ*, has the long sound of *e*, in *ænigma*, *Cæsar*, and some other words. But many authors reject this useless excrescence of antiquity, and write *enigma*, *Cesar*.

The diphthong *ai* has the long sound of *a*, as in *pail*, *sail*,

except in *plaid*, *said*, *again*, *fountain*, *Britain*, and some others.

Au is sounded like broad *a* in *taught*, like flat *a* in *aunt*, like long *o* in *hautboy*, and like short *o* in *laurel*.

Aw has always the sound of broad *a*, as in *bawl*, *crawl*.

Ay has the long sound of *a*, as in *pay*, *delay*.

B.—B has only one sound, as in *bad*, *baker*, *number*.

B is silent when it follows *m* in the same syllable, as in *lamb*, &c., except in *accumb*, *rhomb*, and *succumb*. It is also silent before *t* in the same syllable, as in *doubt*, *debtor*, &c., and in the word *subtle*.

C.—C sounds like *k* before *a*, *o*, *u*, *r*, *l*, *t*, and at the end of syllables, as in *cart*, *cottage*, *curious*, *craft*, *tract*, *cloth*, *victim*, *flaccid*. It has the sound of *s* before *e*, *i* and *y*, as in *cedar*, *cider*, *cycle*. It has the sound of *sh* when followed by a diphthong, and is preceded by the accent, either primary or secondary, as in *social*, *pronunciation*, &c.; and of *z* in *discern*, *sacrifice*, *suffice*. It is silent in *arbuscle*, *czar*, *czarina*, *indict*, *victuals*, *muscle*.

Ch is commonly sounded like *tsh*, as in *child*, *church*, *chin*, but in words derived from the ancient languages it has the sound of *k*, as in *chemist*, *chorus*, and likewise in foreign names, as in *Achish*, *Enoch*. In words from the French, *ch* sounds like *sh*, as in *chaise*, *chevalier*, and also when preceded by *l* or *n*, as in *milch*, *bench*, *clinch*, &c.

Ch in *arch*, before a vowel, sounds like *k*, as in *Archangel*, except in *arched*, *archery*, *archer*, *archenemy*, but before a consonant it sounds like *tsh*, as in archbishop. *Ch* is silent in schism, yacht, drachm.

D.—*D* has one uniform sound, as in *death*, *do*, *did*. It sounds like *dj*, or *j*, when followed by long *u*, preceded by

the accent, as in *educate*, *verdure*. It also sounds like *j*, in *grandeur*, *soldier*.

The termination *ed*, in *adjectives* and *participial adjectives*, retains its distinct sound, as a *wick-ed* man, a *learn-ed* man, *bless-ed* are the meek; but in *verbs* the *e* is generally dropped, as *passed*, *walked*, *flashed*, *aimed*, *rolled*, &c., which are pronounced *past*, *walkt*, *flasht*, *aimd*, *rold*.

E.—*E* has a long sound as in *me*, *he*, *scheme;* a short sound as in *met*, *men*, *tent*, and sometimes the sound of flat *a* as in *sergeant*, and of short *i*, as in *yes*, *pretty*, *England*, and generally in the unaccented terminations, *es*, *et*, *en*.

F.—*F* has one unvaried sound as in *fan*, *muffin*, except in *of*, which when uncompounded, is pronounced *ov*. A *wive's* portion, a *calve's* head are improper. They should be, a *wife's* portion, a *calf's* head.

G.—*G* has two sounds. It is hard before *a*, *o*, *u*, *l*, and *r*, and at the end of a word, as in *gay*, *go*, *gun*, *glory*, *grant*, *bag*, *snug*. It is soft before *e*, *i*, and *y*, as in *genius*, *ginger*, *Egypt*. Exceptions: *get*, *gewgaw*, *gimlet*, and some others. G is silent before *n*, as in *gnat*, &c.

H.—*H* has an articulate sound as in *hat*, *horse*, *hull*. H is silent after *r*, as in *rhetoric*, *rhubarb*.

I.—*I* has a long sound as in *pine*, and a short one as in *pin*. Before *r*, it is often sounded like *u* short, as in *first*, *third*, and in other words like short *e*, as in *birth*, *virtue*. In some words it has the sound of long *e*, as in *machine*, *marine*, *profile*, &c.

J.—*J* has the compressed sound of *dzh*, nearly equal to the soft sound of *g* except in *hallelujah*, in which it is pronounced like *y*.

K.—*K* has the sound of *c* hard, and is used before *e*, *i*, and *y*, where *c* would be soft as in *kept*, *king*, *skirt*, *murky*. It is silent before *n*, as in *knife*, *knell*, *knocker*, *knuckle*.

L.—*L* has always a soft liquid sound as in *love*, *billow*. It is often silent as in *half*, *talk*, *walk*, *almond*.

M.—*M* has always the same sound as in *man*, *murmur*, *mountain*, *monumental;* except in the word *Comptroller*, which is pronounced *controller*.

N.—*N* has two sounds, the one pure, as in *man*, *net*, *noble*; the other, a compound sound, as in *ankle*, *banquet*, *distinct*, &c., pronounced *angkl*, *bangkwet*, &c. *N* final, is silent when preceded by *m*, as in *hymn*, *autumn*, &c.

O.—*O* has a long sound as in *no*, *note*, *over*, and a short one as in *not*, *got*. It has the sound of *oo*, as in *move*, *prove*, and the sound of *u* short, as in *love*, *dove*, *son*, *doth*, *does*, *attorney;* and generally in the terminations, *op*, *ot*, *or*, *on*, *om*, *ol*, *od*, &c.

P.—*P* has but one uniform sound, as in *pin*, *slipper;* except in *cupboard*, and *clapboard*, where it has the sound of *b*. It is mute in *psalm*, *Ptolemy*, *tempt*, *empty*, *corps*, *raspberry*, and *receipt*.

Ph has the sound of *f*, as in *philosophy*, *Philip*, &c., and of *v*, as in *Stephen*.

Q.—*Q* is sounded like *k*, and is always followed by *u* pronounced like *w*, as in *quadrant*, *queen*, *conquest*.

R.—*R* has a rough sound as in *Rome*, *river*, *rage*, and a smooth one as in *bard*, *card*, *regard*. In the unaccented termination *re*, the *r* is sounded after the *e*, as in *fibre*, *centre*, &c.

S.—*S* has a flat sound like *z*, as in *raise*, *besom*, and at the beginning of words, a sharp hissing sound; as in *saint*,

sister, *sample*. It has the sound of *sh* when preceded by the accent and another *s*, or a liquid, and followed by a diphthong or long *u*, as in *pressure*, *expulsion*, *censure*. *S*, sounds like *zh* when preceded by the accent and a vowel, and followed by a diphthong or long *u*, as in *brasier*, *usual*. It is mute in *isle*, *corps*, *demesne*, *viscount*.

T.—*T* is sounded in *take*, *temper*. *T*, before *u*, when the accent precedes, and generally before *eou*, sounds like *tsh*, as *nature*, *virtue*, *righteous*, are pronounced *natshure*, *virtshue*, *richeus*. *Ti*, before a vowel, preceded by the accent, has the sound of *sh*, as in *salvation*, *negotiation*, except in such words as *tierce*, *tiara*, &c., and unless an *s* goes before, as *question*, and excepting also derivatives from words ending it *ty*, as in *mighty*, *mightier*.

Th has two sounds, one thin and sharp as in *thin*, *path*, *panther*, the other broad, or vocal, as in *thine*, *then*, *worthy*, &c.

U.—*U* has three sounds, a long one, as in *tube*, *mule*, *cubic;* a short one, as in *tub*, *dull*, *custard*, and an obtuse sound, as in *pull*, *full*, *bushel*. It is pronounced like short *e* in *bury*, and like short *i* in *busy*, *business*.

V.—*V* has one uniform sound as in *vote*, *value*, *love*, *vanity*.

W.—*W* when a consonant has its sound, which is heard in *wo*, *beware*. *W* is silent before *r*, as in *wry*, *wrap*, *wrinkle*, and also in *answer*, *sword*, &c. Before *h*, it is pronounced as if written after the *h*, as in *why*, *when*, *what*, *hwy*, *hwen*, *hwat*. When heard as a vowel, it takes the sound of *u*, as in *draw*, *crew*, *now*.

X.—*X* has a sharp sound like *ks*, when it ends a syllable with the accent on it, as *excel*, *exchange*, *exercise*, or when it precedes an accented syllable which begins with any con-

sonant except *h*, as *excuse*, *extent*, but when the following accented syllable begins with a vowel or *h*, it has generally a flat sound, like *gs*, or *gz*, as in *exert*, *example*, *exhort*, &c. *X* has the sound of *z* at the beginning of proper names of Greek original, as in Xanthus, Xenephon, Xerxes.

Y.—*Y* when a consonant has its proper sound, as in *youth*, *York*, *yes*, *yet*, *new-year*. When *y* is employed as a vowel, it has exactly that sound that *i* would have in the same situation as in *rhyme*, *system*, *party*, *pyramid*.

Z.—*Z* has the sound of flat *s*, as in *breeze*, *brazen*.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

Spelling is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters.

The orthography of the English language is so anomalous, and in many cases arbitrary, that proficiency in it can be acquired only by practice, and the use of the spelling-book and dictionary. The following rules are of a general character, though even to these there may be a few exceptions.

RULE I.

Monosyllables ending in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant, as *staff*, *mill*, *pass*.

EXCEPTIONS.—*Of*, *if*, *as*, *is*, *has*, *was*, *yes*, *his*, *this*, *us*, *gas*, *pus*.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following words:

Mil, mis, gues, spel, wal, tal, stif, puf, gros, las, til, iff, iss, hass, yess, thiss, thuss, wass.

RULE II.

Words ending in any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter, as *man*, *hat*, *war*, *drug*.

EXCEPTIONS.—*Add*, *odd*, *ebb*, *inn*, *err*, *purr*, *butt*, *buzz*, *bunn*, *egg*.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following words:

Rapp, whenn, gunn, bragg, tarr, batt, sinn, onn, fedd, tubb, ad, eb, od, er, pur, eg, buz.

RULE III.

Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant that is preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant when they assume another syllable that begins with a vowel, as *wit*, *witty; thin*, *thinnish; admit*, *admittance*, *admitted*.

EXCEPTIONS.—But *x* and *h* are never doubled.

But when a diphthong or double vowel precedes, or the accent is not on the last syllable, the consonant remains single, as *toil*, *toiling; maid*, *maiden; wool*, *woolen; fool*, *foolish; offer*, *offering; visit*, *visited*.

EXCEPTION.—In *quit*, *t* is preceded by two vowels, but the *u* has the consonant sound of *w*.

REMARKS.—There are four conditions to be regarded in this doubling. (1.) The word must be a monosyllable, or a word accented on the last syllable. (2.) It must end in a single consonant. (3.) This consonant must be preceded by a single vowel. (4.) The termination or suffix must begin with a vowel.

EXAMPLES.—In *differ*-ing, the first condition is wanting; in *defend*-ing, the second; in *recoil*-ing, the third; and in *allot*-ment, the fourth condition is wanting.

2. The reason for doubling the consonant is that the short sound of the vowel may be retained in the derivative;

thus, *bloting* would be pronounced like *bloating*, with the long sound of *o*. But in such words as are formed, according to the second part of the rule, or do not possess the four conditions required, the proper sound is retained without doubling.

3. There are more than sixty words about which there is a disagreement among lexicographers, as to whether the final consonant should or should not be doubled. These words, ending chiefly in *l*, conform to the other three conditions of the rule, but are not accented on the last syllable. Webster, and those who accept him as authority, do not double the final consonant in these cases. Worcester, and his English predecessors, Richardson, Walker, Johnson, and others, do double the final consonant. Worcester writes *travel*, *travelling*, *traveller; worship*, *worshipping*, *worshipper*. Webster writes *travel*, *traveling*, *traveler; worship*, *worshiping*, *worshiper*.

The words in question are the following: *Worship*, *kidnap*, *compromit*, *bias*, *carburet*, *sulphuret*, and some other like words in chemistry; and the following fifty-three in *l*, namely: *Apparel*, *bevel*, *bowel*, *embowel*, *cancel*, *coral*, *cavil*, *channel*, *chisel*, *counsel*, *cudgel*, *dishevel*, *drivel*, *duel*, *enamel*, *equal*, *gambol*, *gravel*, *grovel*, *hatchel*, *housel*, *imperil*, *jewel*, *kennel*, *label*, *laurel*, *level*, *libel*, *marshal*, *marvel*, *model*, *panel*, *empanel*, *parallel*, *parcel*, *pencil*, *peril*, *pistol*, *pommel*, *quarrel*, *ravel*, *unravel*, *revel*, *rival*, *rowel*, *shovel*, *shrivel*, *snivel*, *tassel*, *trammel*, *travel*, *tunnel*, *victual*.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following:

Spot, spoted; allot, alloted; annul, annuled; refer, refering; permit, permited; overset, overseting; beg, begar; dig, diging; begin, beginer; run, runer; boil, boilling; differ, differrence; proceed, proceedding; defeat, defeatted;

embroil, embroilling; bigot, bigotted; general, generallize; deep, deepper.

RULE IV.

Words ending in double *l*, in taking *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful*, after them, generally omit one *l*, as *fulness*, *skilless*, *fully*, *skilful*, *chilness*.

But words ending in any double letter, but *l*, and taking *ness*, *less*, *ly*, or *ful*, after them, retain the letter double, as *harmlessness*, *carelessness*, *carelessly*, *stiffly*, *successful*.

NOTE.—In the words *skilful* and *chilness*, Mr. Webster, and some others, retain the double *l*, and write *skillful* and *chillness*.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following:

Dull, dullly; hill, hillly; full, fullly; skill, skillless; stiff, stifly; peerless, peerlesly; harmless, harmlesly;

RULE V.

Final *e* is omitted before terminations beginning with a vowel, as *save*, *saving; force, forcible; blame*, *blamable*.

EXCEPTIONS.—Words ending in *ce* or *ge*, retain *e* before *able*, to preserve the soft sound of *c* and *g*, as *change*, *changeable; peace*, *peaceable*.

REMARKS.—1. Some writers retain *e* when *able* is added to *blame*, *move*, *reprove*, *sale*, and their compounds.

2. The word *singe* retains *e* before *ing*, to distinguish it from *singing* from sing. The words *shoe* and *hoe* also retain *e* before *ing*.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following:

Slave, slaveish; convince, convinceing; change, changeing; please, pleaseing; excuse, excuseable; leave, leaveing;

ride, rideing; blue, blueish; charge, chargable; service, servicable; change, changable; singe, singing.

RULE VI.

Silent *e* is retained before terminations beginning with consonants, as *close*, *closely; abate*, *abatement.*

EXCEPTIONS.—*Duly*, *truly*, *awful*, drop *e*. *Argument* is derived from the Latin *argumentum*, and not from *argue.*

When the *e* is preceded by *dg*, some drop and others retain *e*, as *abridge*, *abridgment*, or *abridgement.* The *e* is usually dropped in *judgment.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following:

Sincere, sincerly; sedate, sedatness; advance, advancment; cease, ceasless; love, lovly; waste, wastful; arrange, arrangment; judge, judgement; lodge, lodgement; acknowledge, acknowledgement.

RULE VII.

Words ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* when a consonant is added, as *fly*, *flies; merry*, *merrier*, *merriest*, *merriment.*

EXCEPTION 1.—Before *ing*, *y* is retained that *i* may not be doubled, as *carry*, *carrying; deny*, *denying.*

REMARK.—Words ending in *ie* after dropping *e* before *ing*, change *i* into *y*, for the same reason; as *die*, dying.

EXCEPTION 2.—*Dyeing*, the present participle of *dye*, retains *e* to distinguish it from *dying*, the present participle of *die.*

REMARK.—Words ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* unchanged, as *play*, *playing; valley*, *valleys; boy*,

boyish; boy, boyhood; but *lay, pay, say,* make *laid, paid, said,* and *day* makes *daily.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following:

Happy, happyer; mercy, mercyful; spy, spyes; carry, carryed; vary, varyance; deny, denyed; lady, ladys; deny, deniing; tarry, tarriing; fancy, fanciing; stay, staiing; dismay, dismaied; valley, vallies; chimney, chimnies; day, daies.

RULE VIII.

Some words ending in *ll* drop one *l* in composition, as *full, handful; all, always; till, until.*

REMARK.—Some writers improperly drop one *l* in such words as foretell, enroll, recall, &c.

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following:

Carefull, wellcome, usefull, allways, hurtfull, allready, fulfil, miscal, waterfal, sandhil.

RULE IX.

The terminations *eive* and *ieve* in such words as *receive, relieve,* &c., *eive* is used if the letter *c* precedes, as *receive, perceive;* but *ieve* is used if any other letter precedes, as *believe, retrieve.*

EXERCISES.

Correct the errors in the following:

Acheive, concieve, retrieve, releive, decieve, beleive, percieve.

Now, repeat the sounds of the letters, and the rules for spelling.

N. B.—From the foregoing, you can learn the leading principles of orthography, and for further explanations see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 26, &c.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

Question.—What does Etymology teach?

Answer.—**Etymology** teaches how to form from all the words in the English language several grand divisions or sorts, commonly called parts of speech.

Q.—What does it include?

A.—It includes a knowledge of the meaning and use of words, also their different changes and derivations.

Q.—What does the word signify?

A.—Etymology signifies the origin or pedigree of words.

Q.—What does etymology first treat of?

A.—First.—Etymology treats of the classification of words.

Q.—Into how many divisions or sorts are words divided?

A.—All the words of the English language are divided into ten sorts, commonly called parts of speech, namely: Noun, Article, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Participle, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction and Interjection.

1.—A Noun is the name given to the name of any person, place, or thing, as *man*, *London*, *knife*, &c.

2.—An Article is a word placed before a noun, to limit its meaning, as, *a* man, *an* apple, *the* boy, *the* apples, &c. There are only two articles, *a* or *an* and *the*.

3.—An Adjective is a word joined or added to a noun to describe it, or to express its quality, as a *good* boy, a *sweet* apple, an *honest* man, &c.

4.—A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun to avoid a disagreeable repetition of the noun, as, John goes to school, *he* learns fast, and *he* will excel. You perceive that the little word *he* stands for, or instead of John, and is therefore called a pronoun. In the expressions, "*He* loves," "*She* writes," "*It* snows," the words, *he*, *she* and *it* are pronouns, because they are used instead of nouns. Hereafter, I will make you acquainted with the origin and use of the several kinds of pronouns.

5.—A Verb is a word which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer, as, I *am*, I *rule*, I *am ruled*.

Remark.—The verb is the most important part of speech, for without it no sentence can be expressed. It is the verb that describes or tells the state or condition of the *noun* or *subject* of which we speak, by telling whether it only exists, or performs some action, or is acted upon, as, "John *lives*." "John *beats* James." "John is *beaten* by Joseph." In these examples, the verb *lives*, signifies "to be, or to exist;" the verb *beats*, signifies "to do, or to perform some act," and the verb *is beaten*, signifies "to suffer," which means that John suffered and received the effect of the act performed by Joseph. This definition of the verb has been changed by many authors, but as yet no definition has been given which is not objectionable. At a future time, and in the proper place, this subject will be fully illustrated.

6.—A Participle is a word derived from a verb, and partakes of the nature of a verb and also of an adjective, as, "I found a man *laboring* in the field," and "The *laboring* man should not be wronged." In the first example, the word *laboring* expresses action, and therefore resembles a verb; in the second, it is joined to the noun *man*, to describe it, and therefore resembles an adjective.

7.—An Adverb is a word used to qualify a verb, a participle, an adjective, or another adverb, as, "John speaks *distinctly*," "He is writing *rapidly*," "He is *remarkably* diligent," and "He reads *very correctly*."

8.—A Preposition connects words together, and thereby shows the relation between them, as, "He sailed *for* Europe." "Look *above* this earth."

9.—A Conjunction is a word used to connect words and sentences together, as, "King *and* Queen." "Life is short *and* art is long."

10.—An Interjection is used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind, as *Ah! Alas! Bravo! Hush!* &c.

These definitions of the parts of speech ought to be practically and fully understood in order to be able to understand hereafter the properties peculiar to each class, and how one class of words is derived from another.

Q.—What does etymology secondly explain, and what is meant by the modification of words?

A.—Second.—Etymology explains the accidents or properties peculiar to each class or sort of words and their present *modifications*. By *modifications*, I mean the changes produced in their *endings*, in consequence of their assuming different relations in respect to one another. These changes, such as fruit, fruits, fruit's; he, his, him; write, writest, writeth, writes, wrote, written, writing, writer; a, an; ample, amply; and the like will be explained in their appropriate places.

Q.—What does etymology thirdly treat of, and what do you understand by the derivation of words?

A.—Third.—Etymology treats of the derivation of words, that is, it teaches *how one word comes from, or*

grows out of another. For example, from the word speak come the words speak*est*, speak*eth*, speaks, speak*ing*, sp*oke*, sp*oken*, speak*er*, speak*er's*, speak*ers*. These, you perceive, are all one and the same word, and all, except the last three, express the same kind of action. They differ from each other only in the termination. These changes in the termination are produced on the word in order to make it correspond with the various persons who speak, the number of persons, or the time of speaking, as, I speak, thou speakest, the man speaketh, or speaks, the men speak, I spoke. The speaker speaks another speaker's speech. Some parts of speech are also derived from one another, namely:

1. Nouns are derived from verbs.
2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs.
3. Adjectives are derived from nouns.
4. Nouns are derived from adjectives.
5. Adverbs are derived from adjectives.

1. Nouns are derived from verbs, as from "to love," comes "lover;" from "to visit, visitor;" from "to survive, survivor," &c.

In the following instances, and in many others, it is difficult to determine whether the verb was deduced from the noun, or the noun from the verb, viz: "Love, to love; hate, to hate; fear, to fear; sleep, to sleep; walk, to walk; ride, to ride; act, to act;" &c.

2. Verbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, and sometimes from adverbs; as, from the noun *salt*, comes "to salt;" from the adjective *warm*, "to warm;" and from the adverb *forward*, "to forward." Sometimes they are formed by lengthening the vowel, or softening the consonant, as, from "grass, to graze;" sometimes by adding *en*,

as from "length, to lengthen;" especially to adjectives, as from "short, to shorten; bright, to brighten."

3. Adjectives are derived from nouns in the following manner: adjectives denoting plenty are derived from nouns, by adding *y;* as, from "health, healthy; wealth, wealthy; might, mighty;" &c.

Adjectives denoting the matter out of which anything is made, are derived from nouns, by adding *en;* as, from "oak, oaken; wood, wooden; wool, woolen;" &c.

Adjectives denoting abundance are derived from nouns by adding *ful;* as, from "joy, joyful; sin, sinful; fruit, fruitful;" &c.

Adjectives denoting plenty, but with some kind of diminution, are derived from nouns, by adding *some;* as, from "light, lightsome; trouble, troublesome; toil, toilsome;" &c.

Adjectives denoting want are derived from nouns by adding *less;* as, from "worth, worthless; care, careless; joy, joyless;" &c.

Adjectives denoting likeness are derived from nouns by adding *ly;* as, from "man, manly; earth, earthly; court, courtly;" &c.

Some adjectives are derived from other adjectives, or from nouns, by adding *ish* to them; which termination, when added to adjectives, imports dimunition, or lessening the quality; as "white, whitish;" *i. e.* somewhat white. When added to nouns it signifies similitude, or tendency to a character; as, "child, childish; thief, thievish;" &c.

Some adjectives are formed from nouns or verbs by adding the termination *able;* and those adjectives signify capacity; as, "answer, answerable; to change, changeable."

4. Nouns are derived from adjectives, sometimes by adding the termination *ness;* as, "white, whiteness; swift,

swiftness;" sometimes by adding *th* or *t*, and making a small change in some of the letters; as, "long, length; high, height."

5. Adverbs of quality are derived from adjectives, by adding *ly*, or changing *le* into *ly;* and denote the same quality as the adjectives from which they are derived; as, from "base" comes "basely; from "slow, slowly;" from "able, ably."

Some nouns are derived from other nouns, by adding the termination *hood* or *head*, *ship*, *ery*, *wick*, *rick*, *dom*, *ian*, *ment*, and *age*.

Nouns ending in *hood* or *head*, are such as signify character or qualities; as, "manhood, knighthood, falsehood," &c.

Nouns ending in *ship* are those that signify office, employment, state, or condition; as, "lordship, stewardship, partnership," &c. Some nouns in *ship* are derived from adjectives; as, "hard, hardship," &c.

Nouns which end in *ery* signify action or habit; as, "slavery, foolery, prudery," &c. Some nouns of this sort come from adjectives; as, "brave, bravery," &c.

Nouns ending in *wick*, *rick* and *dom*, denote dominion, jurisdiction, or condition; as, "bailiwick, bishopric, kingdom, dukedom, freedom," &c.

Nouns which end in *ian*, are those which signify profession; as, "physician, musician," &c. Those that end in *ment* and *age*, come generally from the French, and commonly signify the act or habit; as, "commandment, usage," &c.

Some nouns ending in *ard* are derived from verbs or adjectives, and denote character or habit; as, "drunk, drunkard; dote, dotard."

Some nouns have the form of diminutives, but these are

not many. They are formed by adding the terminations *kin*, *ling*, *ing*, and the like; as, "lamb, lambkin; goose, gosling; duck, duckling; hill, hillock," &c.

There are so many other ways of deriving words from one another that it would be extremely difficult, if not impossible, to enumerate them. The primitive words of every language are very few; the derivatives form much the greater number.

N. B.—For a list of the prefixes and suffixes which are applied to English words, with their signification, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 34, &c.

Observation.—I have not treated largely of that branch of derivation which consists in tracing words to foreign languages. This is the province of the lexicographer, rather than of the philologist. It is not the business of him who writes a practical English Grammar, to trace words to the Saxon, Celtic or Greek, nor is it his province to explain their meaning in Latin, French or Hebrew; but it is his duty to explain their properties, their powers, their connections, relations, dependencies and bearings, not in former ages, but at the particular time in which he writes. His words are already derived, formed, established and furnished to his hand, and he is bound to take them and explain them as he finds them in his day, without any regard to their ancient construction and application; which was quite different from the present, and caused Fenning, many years ago, to say:

> "Let each foreign tongue alone,
> 'Till you can read and write your own."

Q.—How is the part of speech to which any word belongs ascertained?

A.—The part of speech to which any word belongs is ascertained not by the original signification of that word,

but by its present manner of meaning, or rather, the office which it performs in a sentence.

Q.—What do you understand by *the manner of meaning* of a word?

A.—The various ways in which a word is applied to the idea which it represents are called its *manner of meaning*. Thus, the painter dips his *paint* brush in *paint*, to *paint* the carriage. Here the word *paint* is first employed to *describe* the brush which the painter uses; in this situation it is, therefore, an adjective; secondly, to *name* the mixture employed, for which reason it is a *noun;* and lastly, to *express the action* performed, it therefore becomes a *verb;* and yet the meaning of the word is the same in all these applications. The meaning, however, is applied in different ways, and thus the same word becomes different parts of speech.

PART III.

SYNTAX.

Question. What does Syntax teach?

Answer.—**Syntax** teaches how to arrange or form words into sentences correctly.

Q.—What does it include?

A.—It includes a knowledge of the rules of composition, formed from the practice of the best writers and speakers.

Q.—What does the word *syntax* signify?

A.—Syntax signifies arranging or placing together, or, as used in grammar, sentence-making.

Q.—What is a sentence?

A.—**A Sentence** is an assemblage of words forming complete sense.

Q.—How many kinds of sentences are there?

A.—Sentences are of two kinds, simple and compound.

Q.—What is a simple sentence?

A.—**A Simple Sentence** has in it but one subject, and one finite verb, as, "Life is short."

Q.—What are finite verbs?

A.—Finite verbs are those to which number and person appertain. Verbs in the infinitive mood have no respect to number and person.

Q.—What is a compound sentence?

A.—**A Compound Sentence** consists of two or more simple sentences connected together, as, "Life is short, and art is long."

Q.—How may the members of sentences be divided?

A.—As sentences themselves are divided into simple and compound, so the members of sentences may be divided likewise into simple and compound members, for whole sentences, whether simple or compound, may become members of other sentences by means of some additional connection, as in the following example: "The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib, but Israel doth not know, my people doth not consider." This sentence consists of two compound members, each of which is sub-divided into two simple members which are properly called clauses.

Q.—What is a phrase?

A.—A phrase is two or more words rightly put together, making sometimes a part of a sentence, *but never* a whole sentence.

Q.—What are the principal parts of a simple sentence?

A.—The principal parts of a simple sentence are the subject, the verb or attribute, and the object.

Q.—How are those described?

A.—The subject is the thing chiefly spoken of, the attribute is the thing or action affirmed or denied of it, and the object is the thing affected by such action.

Q.—Where are they usually placed?

A.—The nominative case denotes the subject, and usually goes before the verb or attribute, and the word or phrase denoting the object follows the verb, as, "A wise man governs his passions." Here *a wise man* is the subject; *governs* the attribute or thing affirmed, and *his passions* the object.

Q.—Of how many parts does syntax consist, and what is concord?

A.—Syntax principally consists of two parts, *concord* and *government*. Concord is the agreement which one word has with another in gender, number, person, or case.

N. B.—Every noun and pronoun is of some gender, number, person, and in some case; and every finite verb is of the same number and person, of which its subject or nominative is. These properties are illustrated where the nouns, pronouns and verbs are fully treated of.

Q.—When and why does one word govern another?

A.—One word governs another, when it requires that other word, to be expressed, in order to complete the sentence, or the sense. For instance, when I say "*I love*," the word *love* extends universally to any thing that can be loved, and it requires some other word to express what I love, as, I love *John*. Now you can understand that the noun *John* completes the sentence and the sense. You can also understand that the governing word *love* introduces an *idea* which it does not express, and requires another word to express that *idea*, in order to complete the sentence and the sense.

Remark.—For a full and complete explanation, and demonstration of the principles of government, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 40, &c., and the explanation of Artificial Language, Ideas, and Words, will be found on pages 7 and 8.

The rules of syntax, which direct to the proper choice of words, and their judicious arrangement in a sentence, and thereby enable us to correct and avoid errors in speech, are chiefly based on principles unfolded and explained by etymology. Etymological knowledge, then, is a prerequisite to the study of syntax; but, in parsing, under the head of etymology, we are required to apply the rules of syntax. It becomes necessary, therefore, in a practical work of this sort, to treat these two parts of grammar in connection.

I have therefore introduced some of the general principles of syntax, in order to enable you to understand the principles unfolded, in the definitions and rules of etymology

and syntax. This you can do without any difficulty, if you understand *perfectly* the nature of government, and memorize the following rules appertaining to the different parts of speech, and to syntax.

RULE 1.—The possessive case is governed by the following noun.

RULE 2.—The indefinite article *a* or *an* belongs to nouns of the singular number.

RULE 3.—The definite article *the* belongs to nouns of the singular or plural number.

RULE 4.—Adjectives belong to the nouns which they describe.

RULE 5.—Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number and person.

RULE 6.—The nominative case governs the verb in number and person.

DEMONSTRATION.—The manner in which the nominative case governs the verb, is different from the manner in which one word governs another as explained in the demonstration on government. The only government which the nominative case has of the verb, is only that of requiring the verb to be of the same number and person with itself. Hereafter you need be at no loss to tell what the number and person of any verb in a sentence is, when you know the number and person of its subject or nominative, for they must be alike.

RULE 7.—The verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.

DEMONSTRATION.—The reason of this is very simple, as the verb in its simple or first form has neither number nor person, and that when it is placed in a sentence it gets its number and person from its nominative; it is plain that it must agree with its nominative in number and person, be

cause the nominative cannot give it a number and person which it has not itself.

RULE 8.—Active transitive verbs govern the objective case.

DEMONSTRATION.—Active transitive verbs govern the objective case because they have extension; that is, they introduce an idea which they do not express, and they require the noun in the objective case, to express this idea, to complete the sentence and the sense. So do all governing words.

RULE 9.—Adverbs belong to the verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs which they qualify.

RULE 10.—Prepositions govern the objective case.

RULE 11.—Conjunctions usually connect verbs of the same mood and tense, and nouns or pronouns of the same case.

RULE 12.—The infinitive mood may be governed by verbs, participles, adjectives, nouns and pronouns.

RULE 13.—Participles refer to nouns.

RULE 14.—Active participles, from active transitive verbs, govern the objective case.

RULE 15.—When two or more nouns or pronouns, in the same sentence signify the same person or thing, they are put, by apposition, in the same case; as, *Cicero*, the great *orator*, *philosopher* and *statesman* of Rome was murdered by Antony.

RULE 16.—When an address is made, the name of the person or thing addressed is in the nominative case independent.

RULE 17.—A noun or pronoun before a participle, and independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute; as, "*Shame* being lost, all virtue is lost," that is, *when shame is lost.*

RULE 18.—Two or more nouns or pronouns, of the singular number, connected together by *and*, either expressed or understood, must have verbs, nouns and pronouns agreeing with them in the plural number; as, Socrates *and* Plato *were* wise; *they* were eminent *philosophers*.

RULE 19.—Two negatives in the same sentence are equivalent to an affirmative; as, "Such things are *not uncommon*;" that is, they are common.

RULE 20.—Two objective cases, the one of a person and the other of a thing, may follow transitive verbs, of *asking*, *teaching*, *giving*, &c.; as, "He taught me grammar."

RULE 21.—An objective case may follow passive verbs, of *asking*, *giving*, *teaching*, &c.; as, "I was taught grammar."

RULE 22.—Home, and nouns signifying which way, how far, how long, or time when, &c., are in the objective case; a preposition being understood.

RULE 23.—The conjunction disjunctive has an effect contrary to that of the conjunction copulative; for, as the verb, noun or pronoun, is referred to the preceding terms taken separately, it must be in the singular number; as, "Ignorance or negligence *has* caused the mistake;" "John, James, or Joseph *intends* to accompany me."

RULE 24, Part 1.—The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no nominative case comes between it and the verb; as, "The master *who* taught us;" "The trees *which* were planted."

Part 2.—But when a nominative case comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by some word in its own member of the sentence; as, "He *who* preserves me, to *whom* I owe my being, *whose* I am, and *whom* I serve, is eternal."

RULE 25.—When the relative is preceded by two nomi-

natives of different persons, the relative and verb may agree in person with either, according to the sense; as, "I am the man *who command* you;" or, "I am the man *who commands* you."

RULE 26.—In the use of words and phrases which, in point of time, relate to each other, a due regard to that relation should be observed. Instead of saying, "The Lord *hath given*, and the Lord hath taken away," we should say, "The Lord *gave*, and the Lord *hath taken* away." Instead of, "I *remember* the family more than twenty years," it should be, "I *have remembered* the family more than twenty years."

RULE 27.—Adverbs, though they have no government of case, tense, &c., require an appropriate situation in the sentence, viz: for the most part, before adjectives, after verbs, active or neuter, and frequently between the auxiliary and the verb; as, "He made a very sensible discourse; he spoke unaffectedly and forcibly, and was attentively heard by the whole assembly."

RULE 28.—Some conjunctions require the indicative, some the subjunctive mood after them. It is a general rule, that when something contingent or doubtful is implied, the subjunctive ought to be used; as, "If I were to write, he would not regard it;" "He will not be pardoned, unless he repent."

Conjunctions that are of a positive and absolute nature require the indicative mood. "As *virtue* advances, so *vice* recedes;" "He is healthy, *because* he *is* temperate."

RULE 29.—When the qualities of different things are compared, the latter noun or pronoun is not governed by the conjunction *than* or *as*, but agrees with the verb, or is governed by the verb or the preposition, expressed or understood; as, "Thou art wiser than I;" that is, "than I am."

"They loved him more than me;" that is, "more than they loved me." "The sentiment is well expressed by Plato, but much better by Solomon than him;" that is, "than by him."

RULE 30.—To avoid disagreeable repetitions, and to express our ideas in a few words, an ellipsis, or omission of some words, is frequently admitted. Instead of saying, "He was a learned man, he was a wise man, and he was a good man," we make use of the ellipsis, and say, "He was a learned, wise and good man."

When the omission of words would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety, they must be expressed. In the sentence, "We are apt to love who love us," the word *them* should be supplied. "A beautiful field and trees," is not proper language. It should be, "Beautiful fields and trees," or, "A beautiful field and fine trees."

RULE 31.—All the parts of a sentence should correspond to each other; a regular and dependent construction, throughout, should be carefully preserved. The following sentence is, therefore, inaccurate: "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cinthio." It should be, "He was more beloved than Cinthio, but not so much admired."

The first example under this rule presents a most irregular construction, namely, "He was more beloved *as* Cinthio." The words *more* and *so much* are very improperly stated as having the same regimen. In correcting such sentences, it is not necessary to supply the latter ellipsis; because it cannot lead to any discordant or improper construction, and the supply would often be harsh or inelegant.

As the 31st rule comprehends all the preceding rules, it may, at the first view, appear to be too general to be use-

ful. But, by ranging under it a number of sentences peculiarly constructed, we shall perceive that it is calculated to ascertain the true grammatical construction of many modes of expression, which none of the particular rules can sufficiently explain.

REMARK.—For a full amplification and explanation of the principles set forth in the 31st rule, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 260.

CAUTION.—Beware of those authors who have not scrupled to alter, mutilate and torture the true principles of the English language, merely to gratify an itching propensity to figure in the world as authors, and whose chief aim appears to have been to dazzle rather than to instruct.

The exercise of a little *common sense* will convince you that if a sentence is not *simple*, it *must be* compound; and that *adjective elements* are only perversions of the true principles of the language. Those who assert that there are three kinds of sentences viz: *simple*, *complex* and *compound*, and that the relative clause, (or any other clause,) is an *adjective element* must certainly have ignored the definitions of the words *complex*, and *element*. See any standard dictionary, in which you will find that *complex* means compound, and that *element* means a part of something. Again, those who assert that there are *possessive pronouns*, only state *personal pronouns* in the possessive case. They could with equal propriety claim that *nouns* in the *possessive case* are *possessive nouns*, and that nouns and pronouns in the *nominative* and *objective* cases, are *nominative* and *objective* nouns and pronouns.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX COMBINED.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

Question.—How are Nouns divided?

Answer.—Nouns are divided into two general classes, PROPER and COMMON.

Q.—What are proper nouns?

A.—**Proper Nouns** are particular names; that is, they are the names of particular individuals of the same kind or sort; or the names of particular places; as, John, James; Boston, London.

Q.—When proper nouns have articles placed before them, how are they used?

A.—When proper nouns have an article placed before them, they are used as common nouns; as, "He is the Cicero of his age."

Q.—When a proper noun admits of a plural, what does it become?

A.—When a proper noun admits of a plural, it becomes a common noun; as, "The twelve Cæsars," or "The seven Jameses."

This is obvious from the fact that a proper noun is in its nature, descriptive of one object only, and therefore, essentially singular. Accordingly the nouns *Spaniard*, *European*, *American*, &c., are common nouns as well as their plurals, *Spaniards*, *Europeans*, *Americans*, &c.

NOTE.—A proper noun should always begin with a capital letter.

Q.—What are common nouns, and how are they classed?

A.—**Common Nouns** are general names; that is, they are names common to *all* individuals or things, of the

same kind or sort; as, animal, man, tree. They are also *generic* and *specific;* that is, a generic common noun contains many specific common nouns, as *genus* contains many *species;* for instance, the word *animal* is a generic common noun or a *genus*, and includes many species of common nouns; as *lion*, *tiger*, *bear*, *horse*, *dog*, *cat*, &c.; so the noun *tree* is a generic common noun, or a *genus*, and includes many specific common nouns or species; as *oak-tree*, *ash-tree*, *apple-tree*, *peach-tree*, &c.

Q.—How are common nouns further classified?

A.—Some common nouns are further classified as COLLECTIVE, ABSTRACT, VERBAL and DIMINUTIVE.

Q.—What is a collective noun?

A.—**A Collective Noun** is the name of a collection of objects considered as one; as *army*, *navy*, *crowd*. A *collective noun* is also called a noun of *multitude*.

Q.—What is an abstract noun?

A.—**An Abstract Noun** is one which denotes the name of a quality apart from the substance to which it belongs; as *goodness*, *sweetness*, *beauty*, *virtue*, &c. They are chiefly derived from adjectives.

Q.—What is a verbal noun?

A.—**A Verbal Noun** is one derived from a verb; as *loving*. It is usually called a PARTICIPIAL noun.

Q.—What is a diminutive noun?

A.—**A Diminutive Noun** is one derived from another noun, and expressing some object of the same kind but smaller; as stream, streamlet; leaf, leaflet; hill, hillock; duck, duckling; goose, gosling, &c.

Q.—How may common nouns be used to signify individuals?

A.—Common nouns may be used to signify individuals, by the addition of articles or pronouns; as "the *boy* is studious;" "that *girl* is discreet."

NOTE.—When two or more words are employed to designate one individual, they are considered as *one* name or noun—as *George Washington; William Henry Harrison.*

EXERCISES.—Which of the following nouns are proper, and which common? Which should begin with a capital letter?—remark, austria, empire, country, holland, queen victoria, poet, milton.

Name five proper nouns and ten common nouns, besides those in the foregoing list.

To what kind or class does each of the following common nouns belong?—flock, senate, walking, spelling, lambkin, islet, whiteness, goodness.

PROPERTIES OR ATTRIBUTES OF NOUNS.

Q.—What belong to nouns?

A.—To nouns belong GENDER, NUMBER, PERSON and CASE.

Every noun is of some gender, some number, some person, and in some case. A noun has the attribute of gender from its expressing sex; of number from its expressing unity and plurality; of person from its expressing the relation of the noun to the speaker, and of case from its expressing the relation of the noun to some verb, preposition, or other noun in the sentence in which it is used.

I. GENDER.

Q.—What is Gender?

A.—**Gender** is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex.

Q.—How many genders have nouns?

A.—Nouns have four genders, the MASCULINE, the FEMININE, the COMMON and the NEUTER.

Q.—What does the masculine gender denote?

A.—The **Masculine Gender** denotes the names of males; as *man*, *boy*, &c.

Q.—What does the feminine gender denote?

A.—The **Feminine Gender** denotes the names of females; as *woman*, *girl*, &c.

Q.—What does the common gender denote?

A.—The **Common Gender** denotes the names of such animals as may be either male or female; as *parent*, *bird*, &c.

Q.—What does the neuter gender denote?

A.—The **Neuter Gender** denotes the names of objects which are neither males nor females; as *chair*, *table*, &c.

NOTE.—The word *neuter* means *neither*. There is a *male* sex and *female* sex; *neuter gender* is merely a grammatical term applied to the names of objects which have no distinction of sex; so the term *common gender* is a grammatical term applied merely to *words*, and does not imply any common sex. Every noun to which the common gender is applied, must be either masculine or feminine.

Q.—How do nouns naturally neuter become masculine or feminine?

A.—Some nouns naturally neuter, do, by a figure of speech called "personification," become masculine or feminine, as, when we say of the sun "*he* is setting," and of a ship, "*she* sails well," &c.

When this animated kind of phraseology is used, it is impossible to give any uniform rule for determining what nouns should be considered as masculine, and what feminine. In general, however, in such cases, nouns become masculine which indicate superior strength, energy or firmness. Those on the contrary are feminine, which indicate delicacy, weakness or timidity, or which are of a passive, rather than an active nature. Examples of those which are considered *masculine*, are *sun*, *time*, *death*, *winter*, *war*, *anger*, &c. Examples of *feminines*, are *moon*, *earth*, *church*, *nature*, *virtue*, *spring*, &c.

MODES OF DISTINGUISHING SEX.

Q.—In how many ways are the genders of nouns distinguished?

A.—There are three ways of distinguishing sex: 1, by the use of different words; as *man*, *woman;* 2, by difference of termination; as *abbot*, *abbess;* 3, by prefixing or affixing another word; as *he-goat*, *she-goat*, *land-lord*, *land-lady*.

1.—BY THE USE OF DIFFERENT WORDS.

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Bachelor,	Maid,	King,	Queen,
Beau,	Belle,	Lad,	Lass,
Boar,	Sow,	Lord,	Lady,
Boy,	Girl,	Male,	Female,
Brother,	Sister,	Man,	Woman,
Buck,	Doe,	Master,	Miss,
Bull,		Mister,	Mistress, or
Bullock,	Cow,	Mr.,	Mrs.,
Ox,		Milter,	Spawner,
Steer,	Heifer,	Nephew,	Niece,
Cock,	Hen,	Papa,	Mamma,
Colt,	Filly,	Ram,	Ewe,
Dog,	Bitch,	Songster,	Songstress,
Drake,	Duck,	Sir,	Madam,
Earl,	Countess,	Sire, (a horse,)	Dam,
Father,	Mother,	Sloven,	Slattern,
Friar,	Nun,	Son,	Daughter,
Monk,		Stag,	Hind,
Gander,	Goose,	Swain,	Nymph,
Hart,	Roe,	Uncle,	Aunt,
Horse,	Mare,	Wizard,	Witch.
Husband,	Wife,		

2.—BY DIFFERENCE OF TERMINATION.

MASCULINE,	FEMININE,	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Abbot,	Abbess,	Monitor,	Monitress,
Actor,	Actress,	Negro,	Negress,
Adulterer,	Adultress,	Patron,	Patroness,
Ambassador,	Ambassadress,	Peer,	Peeress,
Arbiter,	Arbitress,	Poet,	Poetess,
Author,	Authoress,	Priest,	Priestess,
Baron,	Baroness,	Prince,	Princess,
Benefactor,	Benefactress,	Prior,	Prioress,
Caterer,	Cateress,	Prophet,	Prophetess,
Chanter,	Chantress,	Protector,	Protectress,
Conductor,	Conductress,	Shepherd,	Shepherdess,
Count,	Countess,	Songster,	Songstress,
Dauphin,	Dauphiness,	Sorcerer,	Sorceress,
Deacon,	Deaconess,	Tailor,	Tailoress,
Director,	Directress,	Tiger,	Tigress,
Duke,	Duchess,	Traitor,	Traitress,
Editor,	Editress,	Tutor,	Tutoress,
Elector,	Electress,	Tyrant,	Tyranness,
Emperor,	Empress;	Viscount,	Viscountess,
Enchanter,	Enchantress,	Votary,	Votaress,
Founder,	Foundress,		
Giant,	Giantess,	Administrator,	Administratrix,
God,	Goddess,	Executor,	Executrix,
Governor,	Governess,	Heritor,	Heretrix,
Heir,	Heiress,	Testator,	Testatrix,
Host,	Hostess,	Hero,	Heroine,
Hunter,	Huntress,	Landgrave,	Landgravine,
Instructor,	Instructress,	Bridegroom,	Bride,
Jew,	Jewess,	Widower,	Widow,
Lion,	Lioness,	Czar,	Czarina,
Marquis,	Marchioness,	Don,	Donna,
Mayor,	Mayoress,	Sultan,	Sultana.

3.—BY PREFIXING OR AFFIXING ANOTHER WORD.

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Land*lord*.	Land*lady*,	*Man*-servant,	*Maid*-servant.
Gentle*man*,	Gentle-*woman*,	*Male*-child,	*Female*-child,
Arch*duke*,	Arch*duchess*,	Peac*ock*,	Pea*hen*,
School*master*,	School*mistress*,	*Cock*-sparrow,	*Hen*-sparrow,
He-goat,	*She*-goat,	Grand*father*,	Grand*mother*,
Male-*relative*,	*Female*-relative	Turkey-*cock*,	Turkey-*hen*.

Remarks.—When nouns of the common gender are used, we may often determine from some circumstance or other, whether males or females are referred to, but not from the nouns themselves. So far as the nouns are concerned, sex is left entirely out of view. It will not do to say that the nouns are either masculine *and* feminine, or masculine *or* feminine. In such a sentence as this, "John visited his two cousins," we cannot say that *cousins* is masculine, for both may be females; we cannot say it is feminine, for both may be males; we cannot say that *cousins* is masculine *and* feminine, for both cousins may be males, or both may be females; we cannot say that the word is masculine or feminine, for one cousin may be a male, and the other a female.

2. Some masculines have no corresponding feminines, as *baker*, *brewer*, &c. A few feminines have no corresponding masculines; as, *laundress*, *brunette*, *virago*, &c.

3. A collective noun is neuter when it refers not to the objects separately, but to the collection as one whole. Thus, "The *class* is large; *it* must be divided." "The *army* destroyed everything in *its* course." But when reference is made to the *objects composing* the collection, it takes the gender of the individuals referred to.

EXERCISES.

Name five nouns of the masculine gender; five of the feminine; five of the common; and five of the neuter.

Tell the gender of each of the following nouns:

Hero, countess, book, toy, ladies, paper, gold, woman, lord, master, candle, scissors, lamp, fire, tongs, Jewess, priestess, goose, watch, clock, wisdom, whiteness, cousin, parent.

II. NUMBER.

Q.—What does the number of nouns show?

A.—**Number** shows how many are meant, whether one, or more than one.

Q.—How many numbers have nouns?

A.—NOUNS have two numbers, the SINGULAR and the PLURAL.

Q.—What does the singular number express.

A.—The singular number expresses but one, as *boy*.

Q.—What does the plural number mean?

A.—The plural number means more than one, as *boys*.

Q.—What is the regular mode of forming the plural?

A.—The regular mode of forming the plural, is by adding *s* to the singular, as *book*, *books; page*, *pages*.

Q.—When is *es* added to the singular to form the plural?

A.—When the singular ends with a sound which cannot unite with *s*, then *es* is added; as *church*, *churches; box*, *boxes; kiss*, *kisses; lash*, *lashes; topaz*, *topazes*.

Q.—How do nouns ending in *o* form the plural?

A.—Nouns ending in *o* differ as to the mode of forming the plural. Some form the plural by adding *es*. Among these are *calico*, *cargo*, *hero*, *motto*, *mulatto*, *negro*, *potato*, *tornado*, *volcano*, &c. Others form the plural by adding only *s*. Among these are *armadillo*, *cameo*, *canto*, *cento*, *duodecimo*, *folio*, *halo*, *junto*, *memento*, *octavo*, *piano*, *portico*, *proviso*, *quarto*, *salvo*, *sirocco*, *solo*, *trio*, *tyro*, *virtuoso*, *zero*, &c.

Q.—How are nouns ending in *f* or *fe* made plural?

A.—Nouns ending in *f*, or *fe*, are made plural by changing the *f* or *fe*, into *ves;* as *loaf*, *loaves; life*, *lives*, &c.

The following form the plural according to the regular mode, viz.: *brief*, *chief*, *dwarf*, *fife*, *grief*, *gulf*, *hoof*, *handkerchief*, *kerchief*, *mischief*, *proof*, *reproof*, *roof*, *safe*, *scarf*, *strife*, *surf*, *turf*.

Q.—How do nouns ending in *ff* form the plural?

A.—Nouns ending in *ff*, follow the general rule; as *muff*, *muffs;* except *staff;* a stick, which has *staves* in the plural; *staff*, a body of officers, has staffs. The compounds of *staff* all have *staffs* in the plural; as flagstaffs, tipstaffs, distaffs, &c.

Q.—How do nouns ending in *y* form the plural?

A.—Nouns ending in *y* after a consonant, are made plural by changing *y* into *ies;* as *lady*, *ladies; beauty*, *beauties; fly*, *flies.* But when the *y* is preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed regularly; as *day*, *days; delay*, *delays*, &c.

Q.—How are letters, figures, and other characters used as nouns made plural?

A.—Letters, figures, and other characters, used as nouns, are made plural by adding the apostrophe and *s;* as "dot your i's and cross your t's;" "the +'s should be transposed;" "three 6's are equal to two 9's."

Q.—How are proper nouns and other parts of speech used as nouns made plural?

A.—Proper nouns and other parts of speech used as nouns, are made plural in the same manner as common nouns of like endings; as the *Pompeys* and *Ciceros* of the age; the *ins* and *outs* of office. But proper nouns are only pluralized when they refer to a race or family.

In words of this kind ending in *y* after a consonant, the usage is not uniform. Some simply add *s*; as the *Marys* and *Marthas;* the *whys* and *wherefores.* Some change the *y* into *ies;* as the two *Sicillies*, the *Alleghanies; five-twenties.*

Q.—What nouns are irregular in the plural?

A.—The following nouns are irregular in the plural:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Man,	Men,	Tooth,	Teeth,
Woman,	Women,	Goose,	Geese,
Child,	Children,	Mouse,	Mice,
Ox,	Oxen,	Louse,	Lice,
Foot,	Feet,	Penny,	Pence,
Die,	Dice.		

Q.—What nouns have a regular and irregular form of the plural, with different significations?

A.—Some nouns have both a regular and irregular form of the plural, but with different significations, as the following:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Brother, (one of the same family),	Brothers,
Brother, (one of the same society),	Brethren,
Sow, (an individual animal),	Sows,
Sow or Swine, (the species),	Swine,
Die, (a small cube for gaming),	Dice,
Die, (a stamp for coining),	Dies,
Index, (a table of reference),	Indexes,
Index, (a character in algebra),	Indices,
Penny, (a coin),	Pence,
Penny, (a sum of value),	Pennies,
Genius, (a person of genius),	Geniuses,
Genius, (a spirit),	Genii,
Cow, (an animal),	Cows,
Cow, (as a species),	Kine.

Q.—How do the compounds of man form the plural?

A.—The compounds of *man* form the plural in the same manner as the simple words; as, *alderman*, *aldermen*.

Care should be taken, however, not to confound compounds of the words *man* with words that end in those three letters. Thus, *States-man* is really compounded of two words, *States* and *man*; but *Turcoman*, *Mussulman*, *German*, are simple words like *talisman*, *ottoman*, (a kind of seat), and form the plural regularly, thus; *Turcomans*, *Mussulmans*, *Germans*, *talismans*, *ottomans*.

Q.—How do compound words consisting of a noun and an adjective form the plural?

A.—Compounds consisting of a noun and an adjective, connected by a hyphen, take the sign of the plural upon the noun only; as *court-martial*, *courts-martial*.

Q.—How do compounds consisting of two or more words connected by a hyphen form the plural?

A.—Compounds consisting of two or more words connected by a hyphen are sometimes composed of two nouns, one of which is used in the sense of an adjective; as *man-trap*, in which the word man is really an adjective, or of a noun and some combination of words having the force of an adjective, as *father-in-law*, in which the combination *in-law* has the force of an adjective, as much so as the word *legal*. In all these compounds, the sign of the plural is added to that part of the compound word which really constitutes the noun; as *man-traps*, *fathers-in-law*.

Q.—How is *man-servant* and *woman-servant* made plural?

Q.—Man-servant changes both the simple words; as *men-servants;* so, *women-servants*.

Q.—How is the possessive case of compounds formed?

A.—In forming the possessive case of such compounds, the rule is different, the sign of the possessive case being uniformly added to the end of the compound expression; as, singular, *father-in-law*, plural, *fathers-in-law*, possessive case, *father-in-law's*.

Q.—How do the compounds of *full* form the plural?

A.—The compounds of *full* form the plural regularly; as, *mouth-ful*, *mouth-fuls; spoon-ful*, *spoon-fuls*; *bucket-ful*, *bucket-fuls*.

Q.—How do words adopted from foreign languages form the plural?

A.—Words adopted from foreign languages generally retain their original plural. As a general rule nouns ending in *um* or *on* change these terminations to *a* in the plural; but those ending in *is* in the singular, change it into *es* in the plural. The following are the most common, of which some also have a regular English plural; these are marked R:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Animalculum,	Animalcula,	Hiatus,	Hiates, R,
Antithesis,	Antitheses,	Hippopotamus,	Hippopotami,
Apex,	Apices,	Hypothesis,	Hypotheses,
Appendix,	Appendices, R,	Ignis fatuus,	Ignis fatui,
Arcanum,	Arcana,	Lamina,	Laminæ,
Automatum,	Automata,	Magus,	Magi,
Axis,	Axes,	Medium,	Media, R,
Bandit,	Banditti, R,	Memorandum,	Memoranda, R,
Beau,	Beaux, R,	Metamorphosis,	Metamorphoses
Basis,	Bases,	Monsieur,	Messieurs,
Cherub,	Cherubim, R,	Parenthesis,	Parentheses,
Calx,	Calces,	Phenomenon,	Phenomena, R.
Crisis,	Crises,	Radius,	Radii,
Criterion,	Criteria,	Series,	Series,
Datum,	Data,	Seraph,	Seraphim, R,
Desideratum,	Desiderata,	Species,	Species,
Effluvium,	Effluvia,	Stamen,	Stamina, R,
Ellipsis,	Ellipses,	Stimulus,	Stimuli,
Emphasis,	Emphases,	Stratum,	Strata,
Encomium,	Encomia, R,	Superfices,	Superfices,
Erratum,	Errata,	Thesis,	Theses,
Focus,	Foci,	Vertex,	Vertices,
Formula,	Formulæ,	Vortex,	Vortices,
Genus,	Genera,	Virtuoso,	Virtuosi.

Q.—What nouns are for the most part confined to the singular number?

A.—Names of *metals*, *virtues*, *vices*, *arts*, *sciences*, *abstract qualities*, and of things that are either weighed or measured, are for the most part cofined to the singular number; as, *gold*, *goodness*, *idleness*, *wisdom*, *whiteness*, *bread*, *beer*, *beef*, &c., except when different sorts are meant; as, *wines*, *teas*, &c.

Q.—What nouns are used only in the plural?

A.—Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, *annals*, *antipodes*, *archives*, *assets*, *billiards*, *cattle*, *clothes*, *goods*, *measles*, *nuptials*, *oats*, *thanks*, *tidings*, *victuals*,

wages, &c., also the names of things consisting of two parts; as *bellows*, *scissors*, *tongs*, *pincers*, *trowsers*, *tweezers*, &c.

Q.—What nouns are alike in both numbers?

A.—Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as *deer*, *sheep*, *trout*, *salmon*, &c.; also several foreign words, as *apparatus*, *series*, *species*, &c. The singular of such words may generally be distinguished by the use of the indefinite article *a* or *an;* as, *a series*, *a deer*, *a trout*, *an apparatus*, &c.

Q.—Are any nouns sometimes alike in both numbers, which at other times have a regular form for the plural?

A.—Many nouns are sometimes alike in both numbers, and at other times have a regular form for the plural. Among these are, *head*, *brace*, *dozen*, *score*, &c. Thus we say, "He bought *twenty dozen* of them," and "He bought them in *dozens*."

Q.—Are any nouns plural in form, that may be either singular or plural in meaning?

A.—Some nouns are plural in form, but either singular or plural in meaning. Among them are *amends*, *means*, *news*, *riches*, &c., also the names of certain sciences, as *conics*, *ethics*, *optics*, *mathematics*, &c.

Q.—How are the nouns *Means*, *Amends*, *News*, *Riches*, *Alms*, and *Thanks* considered with regard to number?

A.—*Means* and *amends* are singular when they refer to only one object, plural when they refer to more than one. The singular *mean* is also used to signify strictly the middle between two extremes. *News* is rarely found with a plural signification. *Riches* has both a singular and a plural signification. *Alms* is strictly singular. *Thanks* is considered a plural noun, though used to denote one expression of gratitude.

EXERCISES ON NUMBER.

Tell the number of each of the following nouns:

Book, knife, pens, chairs, feet, hands, ox, mice, geese, oxen, leaf, wives, wife, women, men.

Give the plural, and *the rule for forming it*, of table, door, step, stove, oven, monarch, face, place, case, hat, box, fox, miss, wish, lass, loss, inch, watch, atlas, hero, cargo, veto, potato, folio, nuncio, cameo, calf, self, life, story, lady, fancy, day, play, chimney, child, man, handful, cupful, sister-in-law, court-martial, commander-in-chief, antithesis, desideratum.

III. PERSON.

Q.—What is person?

A.—**Person** is the distinction of nouns in their relation to the speaker.

Q.—How many persons have nouns?

A.—NOUNS have three persons, FIRST, SECOND and THIRD.

Q.—What does the first person denote?

A.—The first person denotes the speaker; as "I, *John*, saw it." "I, the *Governor*, make this proclamation." "We *men* are sinful."

Q.—What does the second person denote?

A.—The second person denotes the person spoken to or addressed; as "*James*, come to me;" "*children*, obey your parents."

Q.—What does the third person denote?

A.—The third person denotes the name of the person or thing spoken of; as "*John* saw it;" "The *men* have come;" "*James* gave me an *apple*."

NOTE.—Instances of the use of nouns in the first person are not common, and as no change in the form of the word takes place in consequence of the person; some grammarians omit it altogether in speaking of nouns.

Q.—What is requisite, in order to understand the persons of nouns?

A.—If you wish to understand the persons of nouns, a little sober thought is requisite, and by exercising it, all difficulties will be removed. If I say, my *son*, have you seen the young *man?* You perceive that the noun *son*, is of the *second* person, because I address myself to him; that is, he is spoken *to;* but the noun *man*, is of the *third* person, because he is spoken *of*. Again, if I say, young *man*, have you seen my *son? man* is of the *second* person, and *son* is of the *third*.

Q.—What is always associated with a noun of the first person?

A.—The pronoun *I*, (or some variation of it,) and a noun of the *first* person are inseparable; as I, *John;* we, *men*.

Q.—What does common sense teach us, with regard to the persons of nouns, in the use of language?

A.—If we consider the use of language, we know that without a speaker it would be of no use, and that it would be equally useless to a speaker, without a hearer. Hence, the speaker is entitled to the first place in the use of language, and the hearer or person spoken to, is equally entitled to the second place, and as these can speak of persons or things, either present or absent, so the third person is equally appropriate, as the person of the name, of the person or thing spoken of.

Exercises.—In the following sentences, tell which are nouns, and say of each whether it is proper or common, and what is its gender, number and person:

Mary, you are a good girl. I, John Thomson, hereby certify. You, John Thomson, certify. John Thomson certifies. Consistency, thou art a jewel. Paul, thou art beside thyself. I, John, saw the holy city, New Jerusalem.

IV. CASE.

Q.—What does case signify?

A.—**Case** signifies the *relation* which *nouns* and *pronouns* have to other words in the *same* sentence.

Q.—How many cases have nouns?

A.—In English, nouns have three cases; the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

I. NOMINATIVE CASE.

Q.—When is a noun or pronoun in the nominative case; and how can it be found?

A.—When a noun or pronoun is the subject of a verb, it is in the nominative case; as, "*John* runs;" "the *dog* was killed;" "*He* goes to school."

REMARK.—The subject of a verb is that of which something is said or declared. The subject or nominative of the verb may be found by putting "who" or "what" before the verb and asking the question. Thus, if we ask, "*Who* runs?" the answer will be, "*John;*" if we ask, *What* was killed? the answer will be, "*The dog;*" and if we ask, "*Who* goes to school?" the answer will be, "*He,*"—*John*, *dog*, and *He*, then, are in the nominative case.

Q.—What does the word *nominative* mean, and in what case may all nouns be considered, regardless of sentences?

A.—The word *nominative* means naming, the name of any noun, may be considered in the nominative case; hence, the nominative case is sometimes used independent of any verb, especially when an object or person is addressed; as, "Listen, *O earth!* "*Jane*, Mary, is industrious." Here, *earth* and *Jane* are said to be in the *nominative case independent.*

EXERCISES.—Find the subject of each verb in the following sentences, and say of each whether it is proper or common, and what is its gender, number and person:

Peter whistles. Jane sings. The horse gallops. Birds fly in the air. Whales swim in the sea. The traveler killed the robber. The rabbit jumped into the dog's mouth. The snake bit the dog. The robber was killed by the traveler.

II. POSSESSIVE CASE.

Q.—What does the possessive case denote?

A.—The possessive case is that which denotes *ownership*, or possession; as, "John's hat;" William's coat;" "the lady's fan."

Q.—How is the possessive case of singular nouns formed?

A.—The possessive case in the singular number is usually formed by adding an (') and the letter *s* to the nominative; as, boy, boy's; William, William's.

Q.—How is the possessive case of plural nouns formed?

A.—The possessive plural is formed from the nominative plural, by adding an apostrophe only when the plural ends in *s*, and by adding both the apostrophe and *s*, when the plural does not end in *s;* as "boys, boys';" "men, men's;" or, "boys' books;" "men's hats."

Q.—When the nouns are alike in the singular and plural numbers, how is the possessive case formed?

A.—When the nominative singular and the nominative plural are alike, some place the apostrophe after the *s* in the possessive plural, to distinguish it from the possessive singular; as, singular, deer's; plural, deers'.

Q.—When nouns in the singular end in *s*, *ss*, or *nce*, how is the possessive case formed?

A.—Sometimes when nouns in the singular end in *s*, *ss*, or *nce*, the possessive is formed by adding the apostrophe

only; as, "Archimides' screw;" "For goodness' sake;" "For conscience' sake;" because an additional *s* would occasion too much of a hissing sound, or increase the difficulty of pronunciation.

EXERCISES.

Form the possessive case of each of the following nouns, and say of each whether it is proper or common; and what is its gender, number and person.

Man, boy, girl, women, men, boys, girls, John, James, Thomas, beauty, ox, master, mistress, councilman, ladies, alderman, aldermen, landlady, dray, calf, maid-of-all-work.

III. OBJECTIVE CASE.

Q.—What is the objective case of nouns and pronouns?

A.—The objective case is that in which the noun is the object of action or relation; that is, of some verb or preposition; as, "John struck *William;* "Thomas jumped over the *log.*"

Here *William* is the object of the verb *struck;* and *log* is the object of the preposition *over.*

Q.—What cases of nouns are alike in form?

A.—The nominative and objective cases of nouns are alike in form, but not of pronouns.

Q.—How is the object of an *action*, or *relation*, known?

A.—The object may generally be known by its forming the answer to the question made by putting whom or what after the verb or preposition. Thus, "John struck whom?" Answer—*William.* "Thomas jumped over *what?*" Answer—The *log.*

And again the noun is in the objective case when *me*, *us*, *him* or *them* will make sense in its place; as, John struck *me;* John struck *us;* John struck *him;* John struck *them.*

Q.—What is often used instead of the *possessive case?*

A.—The objective case, with the preposition *of*, is often used instead of the possessive case. Thus, instead of

"God's power," we may say, "The power of God." It is often more correct to employ this construction than to use the possessive.

EXERCISES.

Find the subject of each verb in the following sentences; also the object of each verb and preposition; and tell the gender, number and person of each.

The snake bit the dog. The wolf bit the horse. John threw a stone. The musician broke his fiddle. Mary threw the book into the fire. George struck a lamp-post with his fist. The fox ran through the thicket. Charles caught a fish in the lake.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

Q.—What is the declension of nouns?

A.—Declension is the regular arrangement of nouns according to their numbers and cases.

EXAMPLES.

	1. Boy.			3. Man.	
	Singular.	*Plural.*		*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom.	Boy,	Boys,	Nom.	Man,	Men,
Pos.	Boy's,	Boys',	Pos.	Man's,	Men's,
Obj.	Boy,	Boys.	Obj.	Man,	Men.
	2. Lady.			4. Box.	
Nom.	Lady,	Ladies,	Nom.	Box,	Boxes,
Pos.	Lady's,	Ladies',	Pos.	Box's,	Boxes',
Obj.	Lady,	Ladies.	Obj.	Box,	Boxes.

Remark.—For a full explanation of the cases of nouns and pronouns, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 57, &c.

PARSING.

Q.—What is meant by parsing *words* and *sentences?*

A.—To parse a word is to tell its properties, and its relations to other words; to parse a sentence is to tell the

several parts of speech of which it is composed, and their relations to one another.

RULE I.

The Possessive Case is governed by the following noun.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Parse "John's knife."

MODEL.—*John's* is a noun, because it is a name; *proper*, because it is a particular name; *masculine gender*—it is the name of a male; *third person*—it is spoken of; *singular number*—it means but one; in the *possessive case*, because it implies possession or ownership, and is governed by the noun *knife*, according to

RULE 1. *The possessive case is governed by the following noun.*

Knife is a noun, because it is a name; *common*—it is a general name; *neuter gender*—it is neither male nor female; *third person*—it is spoken of; *singular number*—it means but one; and in the *nominative case*, because it *may* be the *subject* of a verb.

Let the learner parse the foregoing, till the mode of parsing the noun is so familiar to him that he can do it readily, without looking in the book.

He may then take the following exercises and parse them in a similar manner.

"Peter's cap." "Stephen's coat." "Boy's hats." "John's slate." "Father's house." "Brother's knife."

ARTICLES.

Q.—What are articles?

A.—**Articles** are words put before nouns, to point them out, or to limit their meaning; as, *a* man, *the* woman.

Q.—How many articles are there, and which are they?

A.—There are only two articles, *a* or *an*, and *the*.

Q.—What is *a* or *an* called?

A.—A or AN is called the indefinite article.

Q.—What is *the* called?

A.—THE is called the definite article.

Q.—Why is the article *a* called indefinite?

A.—The article *a* is called indefinite, because it means no particular person or thing; as, "*a* house;" "*a* man;" that is, any house, any man.

Q.—Why is the article *the* called definite?

A.—The article *the* is called definite, because it means some particular person or thing; as, "*the* house," "*the* man;" meaning some particular house; some particular man.

Q.—When does the article *a* become *an?*

A.—The article *a* becomes *an* before a word beginning with a vowel sound; as, *a* man, *an* old man, *an* honest man.

Q.—What is the true distinction in the use of *a* or *an?*

A.—Sometimes a vowel at the beginning of a word has the sound of a consonant. Thus *o* in *one* is pronounced as if the word began with the consonant sound of *w; u* in *unit* is pronounced as if the word began with the consonant sound of *y*. In such cases the article should be *a*. On the other hand, the consonant *h* at the beginning of a word is sometimes not sounded, as in *honest* (pronounced *onest*). In that case the article should be *an*. Therefore, in determining whether to use *a*, or to use *an*, we should notice not the letter, but the real sound, with which the next word begins. *An* is used before the words *heroic* and *historical.*

Q.—What does *A* or *an* mean?

A.—*A* or *an* means one, and is used only before the singular number; as, *a man, an apple.* Hence,

RULE II.

The indefinite article a or *an belongs to nouns of the singular number.*

Q.—What exceptions to Rule II?

A.—When the adjective *few*, *great many*, *dozen*, *hundred*, *thousand*, &c., come between the noun and article, the noun to which the indefinite article belongs, is plural; as, "a few men, "a great many men," &c.

The article *the* is used before both numbers; as, *the man*, *the men*. Hence,

RULE III.

The definite article THE *belongs to nouns of the singular or plural number.*

REMARK.—Some nouns in the singular number without an article before them are taken in the widest sense for a whole species; as, "*fruit* is abundant;" "*gold* is heavy;" "*man* is born to trouble." Here we mean fruit and gold *in general;* and *all men*, or *mankind*. This usage, however, is by no means universal. On the contrary, in many words, the article is used for this very purpose; as *the* horse, for horses is general.

NOTE 1.—The article is omitted before nouns implying the different virtues, vices, passions, qualities, sciences, arts, metals, herbs, &c.; as, "*modesty* is becoming;" "*falsehood* is odious;" "*Grammar* is useful," &c.

2.—The article is not prefixed to proper nouns; as, Barron killed Decatur; except by way of eminence, or for the sake of distinguishing a particular family, or when some noun is understood; as, "He is not *a* Franklin; he is *a* Lee, or of the family of *the* Lees;" "We sailed down *the* river Missouri."

3.—In referring to many individuals, when we wish to bring each separately under consideration, the indefinite article is sometimes placed between the adjective *many* and a single noun; as, "Where *many a rosebud* rears its blushing head;" "Full *many a flower* is born to blush unseen."

4.—The definite article *the* is frequently applied to *adverbs* in the comparative or superlative degree; as, "The more I examine it, the better I like it; I like this the least of any."

For a full explanation of why the article *a* or *an* is called indefinite, and the article *the* definite, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 61.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Parse.—A hand. The boy.

MODEL.—A is an article, a word placed before nouns to limit their meaning—indefinite; it means no particular hand—and belongs to the noun hand, according to

RULE 2.—The indefinite article a or an belongs to nouns of the singular number.

Hand is a noun, because it is a name; common—it is a general name; neuter gender—it is neither male nor female; third person—it is spoken of; singular number—it means but one; and in the nominative case, because it may be the subject of a verb.

The is an article, a word placed before nouns to limit their meaning—definite; it means a particular boy, and belongs to the noun boy, according to

RULE 3.—The definite article the belongs to nouns of the singular or plural number.

Boy is a noun, it is a name; common—it is a general name; masculine gender—it is the name of a male; third

person—it is spoken of; singular number—it means but one; and in the nominative case, because it may be the subject of a verb.

Parse the following:

"A mouth." "An insect." "The mice." "The boy's hat." "A mite." "An ounce." "The men." "The girl's room."

ADJECTIVES.

Q.—What is an adjective?

A.—**An Adjective** is a word joined to a noun to describe or qualify it; as, "an *obedient* son," "a *wise* man."

Q.—For what is the adjective varied, and how many degrees of comparison are there?

A.—In English, an adjective is varied only to express the degrees of comparison. There are three degrees of comparison; the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

Q.—What does the positive degree do?

A.—The positive degree simply describes an object without any comparison; as, "John is *good*," "a *sweet* apple."

Q.—What does the comparative degree do, and what does it always imply?

A.—The comparative degree increases or lessens the positive in meaning; as, "William is *better* than John," and it implies a comparison between two persons or things.

Q.—What does the superlative degree do, and what does it imply?

A.—The superlative degree increases or lessens the positive to the highest or lowest degree; as, "Thomas is the *best*; "Walter is the *worst*." It implies a comparison between three or more.

Q.—How are monosyllables usually compared?

A.—The simple word or positive, if a monosyllable, becomes the comparative by adding *r* or *er*, and the superlative by adding *st* or *est*, to the end of it; as, *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*; *great*, *greater*, *greatest*.

Q.—How are adjectives of more than one syllable usually compared?

A.—In words of more than one syllable, the comparison is usually made by placing the adverbs *more* and *most* before the positive; as, *benevolent*, *more benevolent*, *most benevolent*.

The comparison is also formed by the adverbs, *less*, and *least;* as *wise*, *less wise*, *least wise*.

Q.—How are dissyllables ending in *y* and in *le* after a mute compared?

A.—Dissyllables ending in *y;* as, *happy*, *lovely*, and in *le*, after a mute; as, *able*, *ample*, or accented on the last syllable; as, *discreet*, *polite;* easily admit of *er* and *est;* as, *happy*, *happier*, *happiest; able*, *abler*, *ablest; polite*, *politer*, *politest*. Words of more than two syllables hardly ever admit of these terminations.

Q.—In what other way is the superlative degree formed?

A.—In some words, the superlative is formed by adding the adverb *most* to the end of them; as, *nethermost*, *topmost*, *uttermost*, *uppermost*.

Q.—What kind of adjectives do not admit of comparison?

A.—Some adjectives, having in themselves a superlative signification, do not admit of comparison; as, *extreme*, *perfect*, *right*, *wrong*, *straight*, *round*, *square*, *infinite*, *supreme*, *omnipotent*, *eternal*, &c.

Q.—What is the effect of *ish* when added to adjectives?

A.—By adding *ish* to adjectives, we have a slight degree

of comparison below the positive; as *black*, *blackish; salt*, *saltish; white*, *whiteish; sweet*, *sweetish.*

Q.—What do the adverbs *very*, and *rather* express?

A.—*Very* expresses a degree of quality, but not the highest; as, "good," "*very* good." *Rather* expresses a degree of quality, but not the lowest; as, "*little*," "*rather* little."

Q.—What are numeral adjectives?

A.—Words used in counting and numbering are called numeral adjectives; as, *one*, *two*, *three; first*, *second*, *third.*

Q.—How many kinds of numeral adjectives are there?

A.—Numeral adjectives are of two kinds: CARDINAL and ORDINAL. They are not compared.

Q.—What do cardinal adjectives denote?

A.—THE CARDINAL ADJECTIVES denote how many; as, *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *five*, &c.

Q.—What do ordinal adjectives denote?

A.—THE ORDINAL ADJECTIVES denote in what order; as, *first*, *second*, *third*, &c.

Q.—When do adjectives become nouns?

A.—An adjective put without a noun, with the definite article before it, becomes a noun in sense and meaning, and may be considered as such in parsing; as, "Providence rewards the *good*, and punishes the *bad.*"

Q.—What is said of double comparatives and superlatives?

A.—Double Comparatives and Superlatives, since they add nothing to the sense, should be avoided; as *worser*, *more wiser*, *lesser*, *supremest*, &c.

Q.—What adjectives are compared irregularly?

A.—The following adjectives are compared irregularly:

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Good,	Better,	Best,
Bad, evil or ill,	Worse,	Worst,
Little,	Less,	Least,
Much or many,	More,	Most,
Late,	Later,	Latest or last,
Near,	Nearer,	Nearest or next,
Far,	Farther,	Farthest,
Fore,	Former,	Foremost or first,
Old,	Older or elder,	Oldest or eldest.

Q.—How are the adjectives *much*, and *many*, *elder*, and *eldest*, *older* and *oldest*, applied?

A.—*Much* is applied to things weighed or measured; *many* to those that are numbered. *Elder* and *eldest* are applied to persons only; *older* and *oldest* to either persons or things.

Q.—What rule is applied to adjectives?

A.—Rule IV.—*Adjectives belong to the nouns which they describe.*

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Parse "*A wiser child.*"

Model.—A is an article, a word placed before nouns to limit their meaning; Indefinite—it means no particular child, and belongs to the noun child, according to

Rule II.—The indefinite article *a* or *an* belongs to nouns of the singular number.

Wiser is an adjective, a word joined with a noun, to describe or qualify it; "positive wise; comparative wiser; superlative wisest;"—made in the comparative degree; and belongs to the noun child, according to

Rule IV.—Adjectives belong to the nouns which they describe.

Child is a noun, it is a name; common—it is a general name; common gender—it may be either male or female; third person—it is spoken of; singular number, it means but one, and is in the nominative case, because it may be the subject of a verb.

Parse the following:

"A dutiful son." "An ugly child." "The whiter cloth." "A large, convenient, and airy habitation." "Johnson's large dictionary."

PRONOUNS.

Q.—What is a pronoun?

A.—**A Pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid a disagreeable repetition of the noun; as, "The man is happy, *he* lives virtuously."

Q.—Why called personal pronouns; which are they, what have they, and to which is gender applied?

A.—**A Personal Pronoun** is so called, because it always represents the same person. There are five of them—I, THOU or YOU, HE, SHE, and IT, with their plurals, WE, YE or YOU, THEY. They have person, number, and case, like nouns, and those of the third person singular have gender also.

Q.—Which are the singular pronouns, and what are the genders of the third person singular?

A.—*I* is the first person, *thou* or *you* the second, and *he*, *she*, or *it* the third. *He* is masculine, *She* is feminine and *it* is neuter.

Q.—How many cases and numbers have pronouns?

A.—Pronouns, like nouns, have three cases—the nominative, the possessive, and the objective; and two numbers—the singular and plural; and they are declined.

DECLENSION OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. I,	We,
Pos. My or mine,	Ours or our,
Obj. Me,	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

Singular.		*Singular.*	*Plural,*
Nom. Thou,		Nom. You,	Ye or you,
Pos. Thy or Thine,	or	Pos. Your or Yours,	Your or yours,
Obj. Thee,		Obj. You,	You.

THIRD PERSON, MASCULINE GENDER.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. He,	They,
Pos. His,	Theirs or their,
Obj. Him,	Them.

THIRD PERSON, FEMININE GENDER.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. She,	They,
Pos. Hers or her,	Theirs or their,
Obj. Her,	Them.

THIRD PERSON, NEUTER GENDER.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. It,	They,
Pos. Its,	Theirs or their,
Obj. It.	Them.

Q.—What personal pronouns are called leading pronouns; and why are they so called?

A.—The pronouns of the nominative singular, are called leading pronouns. They are I, THOU, or YOU, HE, SHE, and IT. The others are variations of these five.

Mine and *thine*, instead of *my* and *thy*, were formerly used in the solemn style, before nouns and adjectives beginning with a vowel, or silent *h;* as, "Blot out all mine iniquities."

Q.—Why is gender applied to the *third* person singular, and not to the *first* and *second* person singular?

A.—In the *third* person there is a different pronoun for each gender in the singular number; but in the *first* and *second* the same pronouns are used, whatever may be the gender. The sex of the *speaker* and *person addressed* is supposed to be known from their being present, and from other circumstances.

Q.—What is the distinction between the two forms of the possessive case?

A.—Where there are two forms of the possessive case, one of them is used when the name of the thing possessed is expressed; the other when it is omitted. Thus: "That is *your* book, but this is *mine;*" "This is *my* book, but that is *yours*."

Q.—When the plural *we* is used instead of the singular *I*, what should be the number of the verb?

A.—In the first person, the plural *we* is often used for the singular *I*, by Editors, Reviewers, Governors, &c. Where a plural pronoun is thus used, while only one person is meant, the verb as well as the pronoun must be plural. Thus, *we are*, not *we is; you were*, not *you was*.

Q.—What is the use of the adjective *own* when connected with the possessive case of personal pronouns?

A.—The adjective *own* is frequently found connected with the possessive case of the personal pronoun, in order to make the possessive emphatic; thus, "It is your *own* fault."

Q.—How is the pronoun *it* used indefinitely?

A.—The pronoun *it*, besides its use as the neuter pronoun of the third person, is also used *indefinitely* with the verb *to be*, in the third person singular, for all genders, numbers, and persons; as, *It is I*, *it is we*, *it is you*, *it is they*, *it was she*, &c.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Q.—How are compound personal pronouns formed?

A.—When the word *self* in the singular (and *selves* in the plural), is added to the personal pronouns, they are called *compound personal pronouns*. Thus: *myself*, *ourselves; thyself* or *yourself*, *yourselves; himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *themselves*.

Q.—What are these compound pronouns used for?

A.—These pronouns are used for the sake of emphasis or distinction; or when an action is represented as exerted upon the agent; as "I *myself* did it;" "He killed *himself*."

Q.—Have they the possessive case?

A.—They have no possessive case, and the objective is the same as the nominative.

Q.—Are those compound pronouns ever formed with pronouns in the nominative case?

A.—They are not. In those of the first and second persons, *self* and *selves* are added to the *possessive* case of the simple pronouns; in those of the third person *self* and *selves* are added to the objective case.

Q.—What is the gender, number and person of pronouns?

A.—Pronouns have the same gender, number and person that the nouns for which they stand have. Hence,

RULE V.

Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand, in gender, number and person.

REMARK.—For a full explanation of the origin of the pronoun, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 68.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Parse "his," in the sentence, John lost his book.

MODEL.—His is a pronoun, a word used instead of a noun; personal—it always represents the same person; masculine gender, singular number, and third person; because "John, "the noun for which it stands is—with which it agrees, according to

RULE V.—Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand in gender, number and person.

In the possessive case, because it implies possession or ownership, and is governed by the noun book, according to

RULE 1.—The possessive case is governed by the following noun. Declined—Singular number, nominative, he, possessive, his, objective, him. Plural number, nominative, they, possessive, their's or their, objective, them.

Parse all articles, nouns and pronouns in the following sentences:

"He went to school." "She went to her task." "William went to his play." "The book was mine, but now it is your's."

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

In the sentence, "Both wealth and poverty are temptations; *that* tends to excite pride, *this* discontent;" you perceive that the word *that* represents wealth, and the word *this* poverty. *This* and *that* do, therefore, resemble pronouns, and may, for this reason, be called pronouns.

When I say, "This house is mine, that barn is yours," the words *this* and *that* are joined to nouns like adjectives, to define or specify them; they may, on this account, be called adjectives.

Q.—What then are adjective pronouns?

A.—**Adjective Pronouns** are words that resemble both pronouns and adjectives. These pronouns are sometimes called pronominal adjectives, or specifying adjectives.

Q.—How divided?

A.—The Adjective Pronouns may be divided into three sorts—the distributive, the demonstrative, and the indefinite.

Q.—What are distributive adjective pronouns?

A.—1. The Distributives are those that relate to persons or things, taken separately and singly.

Q.—Which are they?

A.—They are each, every, either, and sometimes neither.

Q.—What does *each* relate to:

A.—Each relates to two or more persons or things, taken separately; as, "*each* of his brothers is doing well."

Q.—What does *every* relate to?

A.—Every relates to several persons or things, and signifies each one of them, taken separately; as, "*Every* man must account for himself."

Q.—What does *either* relate to?

A.—Either relates to two persons or things only, taken separately, and signifies the one or the other; as, "I have not seen either." Hence, to say, "either of the three," is incorrect.

Q.—What does *neither* mean?

A.—Neither means not either; that is, not one nor the other; as, "*Neither* of my friends was there."

Q.—What are demonstrative adjective pronouns?

A.—2. The Demonstratives are those which precisely point out the things to which they relate.

Q.—Which are they:

A.—They are this, that, yon, former, latter, and are of both numbers, thus:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
This,	These,	Former,	Former,
That,	Those,	Latter,	Latter.
Yon,	Yon.		

Q.—What do *This* and *These; That* and *Those*, and *That* and *This* refer to?

A.—*This* and *These* refer to the nearest persons or things; *That* and *Those* to the most distant; as, "*These* gloves are superior to *those*." *That* refers to the *former*, or *first mentioned*, *this* to the *latter*, or last mentioned; as, "Both wealth, and poverty, are temptations;" *that* (wealth) tends to excite pride, *this* (poverty) discontent.

Q.—What are indefinite adjective pronouns?

A.—3. The Indefinites are those that refer to things in an indefinite or general manner.

A.—Which are they?

A.—They are: Some, other, any, one, all, such, none.

Q.—Are any of those declined like nouns?

A.—Of these pronouns, *one* and *other* are declined like nouns. *Another* is declined in the singular, but it wants the plural.

One and *other* are declined, as follows:

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	One,	Ones,	Other,	Others,
Pos.	One's,	Ones',	Other's,	Others',
Obj.	One,	Ones,	Other,	Others.

Q.—What does *another* mean?

A.—*Another* is merely the article *an* and *other*, and is used only in the singular number.

Q.—How is *none* used?

A.—*None* is used in both numbers, but it cannot be joined to a noun.

Q.—How are *one*, *other*, and *another*, sometimes used?

A.—*One*, *other*, and *another*, are sometimes used as nouns; as, "The old bird feeds her young *ones*."

Q.—What other words may be reckoned as indefinite adjective pronouns?

A.—Among the indefinites may also be reckoned such words as no, few, many, several, &c.

Q.—How are the three notes appertaining to adjective pronouns explained?

A.—We say, "*This* book," "*These* books;" also, "*one* man," "*twenty* men," hence,

NOTE 1.—Adjective pronouns and numerals must agree in number with the nouns to which they belong.

We cannot say, "Them run;" but, "They run," hence,

2.—When a noun or a pronoun is the subject of a verb, it should be in the nominative case.

It is very common for persons in conversation to say, "Them books." "Them knives," &c., instead of "Those books," "Those knives," &c. The incorrectness here alluded to consists in substituting a personal in the place of an adjective pronoun; hence,

3.—The pronoun *them* should not be used in the place of *these* or *those*.

PARSING EXERCISES.

Parse "*These two books.*"

MODEL.—*These* is an ADJECTIVE PRONOUN of the DEMONSTRATIVE kind, in the PLURAL NUMBER and belongs to the noun *books*, according to NOTE 1. (Repeat the note.)

Two is a NUMERAL ADJECTIVE, of the CARDINAL kind, and belongs to *books*, according to NOTE 1.

Books, (is parsed according to the model).

Parse the nouns, articles, adjectives, and adjective pronouns in the following sentences:

"A good boy influences many others." "Some persons acquire wealth." "Either party can repair the injury." "Each man arrived at his station." "Every man must account for himself." "Those sinful men make many pretences to religion." "These good men might remain with us."

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Q.—What is a relative pronoun?

A.—**A Relative Pronoun** is a word that relates to, and stands for some noun before it in the same sentence; as, "That man is happy who lives virtuously;" the word *who* is a pronoun, because it stands for a noun (the noun *man*) and it is a relative, because it relates or refers to this noun in the same sentence.

Q.—How many relative pronouns are there?

A.—There are three relative pronouns, namely: WHO, WHICH and THAT.

Q.—When is *who* used?

A.—*Who* is used in speaking of persons; as, "The man *who* came."

Q.—When is *which* used?

A.—*Which* is used in speaking of animals or things; as, "The bird *which* sings." "The tree *which* I planted."

Q.—When is *which* used in speaking of persons?

A.—*Which*, however, is used in speaking of persons, when we wish to distinguish one of two individuals, or a particular person among many others; as, "Which of the two is he?" "Which of them has gone?"

Q.—How is *that* used?

A.—*That*, as a relative, is often used in speaking either of persons or things in the place of *who* or *which;* as, "The

boy that reads," or "the boy who reads." "The bird that flew," or "The bird which flew." "The bench that was made," or "The bench which was made."

Q.—When is the relative *that* used in preference to *who*, or *which?*

A.—*That* is used in preference to *who* or *which*, in the following cases:

1.—In speaking both of persons and things; as, "The man and the beast that I saw, perished."

2.—In speaking of children; as, "The child that I met."

3.—After the adjective, *same;* as, "He is the same man that we saw yesterday."

4.—After the superlative degree; as, "He is the wisest man that the world ever produced."

5.—After the relative *who;* as, "Who that reflects."

Q.—How many numbers has *who*, and how is it declined?

A.—We can say, "The man who," or "The men who," using the relative *who* in speaking either of one man or more than one; *who*, then, is of both numbers, and is thus declined:

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	Who,	Who,
Poss.	Whose,	Whose,
Obj.	Whom,	Whom.

Q.—How many numbers have *which* and *that*, and are they declined?

A.—*Which* and *that* are of both numbers, but they are not declined, except that *whose* is sometimes used as the possessive case of *which;* as, "Is there no other doctrine *whose* followers are punished?"

Q.—How many words does *whose* represent when used as the possessive of which?

A.—*Whose*, used in the manner last described, is made to represent three words; as "Philosophy *whoes* end," for "*the* end of *which*."

Q.—What does the word *antecedent* mean, and what is the antecedent of a relative pronoun?

A.—*Antecedent* signifies *going before.*

The noun or pronoun which goes before the relative, and to which the relative refers, is therefore called the antecedent of the relative; as, "John, who has gone." Here, John is the antecedent of *who.*

Q.—Are *who*, *which* and *that* always relatives?

A.—When you are told that *who*, *which* and *that* are relatives, you should not get the impression that the last two are always relatives, for *that* is a relative only (except in those cases in which it is used in preference to *who* or *which*); when it is used in the sense of *who* or *which*, that is, when *who* or *which* may be used in its place, without destroying the sense; as, "Here is the knife that I found," which can be altered to "Here is the knife which I found," without injury to the sense.

Q.—How many different parts of speech may *that* represent?

A.—*That*, when it points out or specifies some particular person or thing is reckoned an adjective pronoun. When not used as a relative, nor as an adjective pronoun, it is reckoned a conjunction; as, "He studies that he may learn."

Hence it appears that the word *that* may be used sometimes as a relative pronoun, sometimes as an adjective pronoun, and sometimes as a conjunction.

Q.—What is the rule for the government of relative pronouns?

A.—Since relative pronouns stand for nouns, as well as personal pronouns, they should therefore agree with nouns in the same particulars and by the same rule. Rule V, will therefore apply to both.

COMPOUND AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Q.—What does the word *what* mean in the following sentences?

"I took *what* you gave me." "I took *that which* you gave me." "I took *the thing which* you gave me." "I took *those things which* you gave me."

A.—By examining the foregoing sentences, you will see that the word *what*, in the first example, means the same as the words in italics in the successive ones; the word *what*, then, is clearly a pronoun, and because it stands for more than one word, it is called a compound pronoun. The word before the relative *which*, in the phrase, "that which," or "the thing which," is the antecedent of *which*.

Q.—What then is a correct definition of *what?*

A.—WHAT is a compound pronoun, always including the demonstrative *that*, which points out the antecedent noun, and the relative *which*, that repeats that antecedent in the subsequent member of the sentence.

Q.—When is the word *what* used as a relative pronoun?

A.—The relative *what* is never used except when the antecedent is omitted; *which* is used when the antecedent is expressed. Therefore, if we omit the antecedent we must use *what* instead of *which*, and if the antecedent is restored to its place, *which* must follow, and not *what*. Thus, "I saw what I wanted to see." Here the antecedent to *what* is *thing* understood; if we express the antecedent *thing*, *which* will take the place of *what;* as, "I saw the thing *which* I wanted to see."

Q.—In which of the personal pronouns in the possessive case is the usage similar to that of *what?*

A.—There is a similar usage in some of the personal pronouns in the possessive case; as, "This is *my* book." If we leave out the noun *book*, the pronoun *my* must be

changed to *mine;* as, "This is *mine.*" The pronouns which follow this rule are those which have two forms in the possessive case; namely, *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs.* They are always used when the noun expressing the thing possessed is omitted, just as *what* is used instead of *which* when the antecedent is omitted. The word left out in these cases is usually something so easily supplied that it seems to exist in the pronoun itself, whereas it really exists only in our own thoughts. *What* does not of itself mean "*the thing which*," any more than *mine*, of itself, means "*my book.*"

Q.—Is *what* ever used as an interjection?

A.—In some instances we find *what* used in the sense of an interjection; as, "What! take my money, and then my life?"

Remark.—For a full explanation and demonstration of the relative *What*, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 76, &c.

The only exception to the rule for finding the nominative case to a verb is, when a relative pronoun is nominative to a verb. The case of the relative pronoun is determined by Rule XXIV, which may be called a local rule, or a rule of place, and which is as follows, namely:

RULE XXIV.

Part 1.—The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no nominative case comes between it and the verb; as, "The master *who* taught us;" "The trees *which* were planted."

Part 2.—But when a nominative comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by some word in its own member of the sentence; as, "He *who* preserves me, to *whom* I owe my being, *whose* I am, and *whom* I serve, is eternal."

In the several members of the last sentence the relative performs a different office. In the first member it marks the agent; in the second it submits to the government of the preposition; in the third, it represents the possessor; and in the fourth, the object of an action; and therefore it must be in the three different cases, corresponding to those offices.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

Parse—"That man is happy who lives virtuously."

MODEL.—*That* is an adjective pronoun, of the demonstrative kind; in the *singular number*—and belongs to *man*, according to NOTE 1. (Repeat the note.)

Man is a noun, because it is a name; *common*—it is a general name; *masculine gender*—it is the name of a male; *singular number*—it means but one; *third person*—it is spoken of, and it is in the *nominative case*, because it is the *subject* of a *verb*, and will answer to the question *who*, put before the *verb*, and it is nominative case to the verb *is*, according to RULE VI. (Repeat the rule.)

Is is a verb, because it signifies *to be* or *to exist*; made in the *singular number*, and *third person*—because its nominative *man* is of that number and person with which it agrees according to RULE VII. (Repeat the rule.)

Happy is an adjective; a word joined or added to a noun to describe or qualify it. Positive, *happy;* comparative, *happier;* superlative, *happiest;* made in the positive degree, because it merely describes without any comparison, and belongs to the noun man, according to RULE IV. (Repeat the rule.)

Who is a relative pronoun, because it relates to the noun man, its antecedent for which it stands, and with which it agrees in gender, number and person, according to RULE V. (Repeat the rule.)

It is, therefore, masculine gender, singular number, and third person, and is the nominative case to the verb *lives*, according to the first part of

RULE XXIV.—The relative is the nominative case to the verb, when no nominative case comes between it and the verb.

Lives is a verb, because it expresses being or existence; made in the singular number, and third person, because its nominative *who*, is of that number and person, with which it agrees according to RULE VII. (Repeat the rule.)

Virtuously is an adverb, because it qualifies the verb lives, and belongs to the verb lives, according to RULE IX.

Adverbs belong to the verbs, participles, adjectives or other adverbs, which they qualify.

"The man found *what* he wanted," equal to "The man found *that thing*, or *those things* which he wanted."

What is a compound pronoun, including the demonstrative, *that*, which points out the antecedent noun, and the relative *which* that repeats that antecedent in the subsequent member of the sentence. *That*, the demonstrative part of *what*, belongs to the noun *thing*, according to NOTE 1.

Which, the relative part of *what*, relates to the noun *thing*, as its antecedent, with which it agrees, according to RULE V.

It is, therefore, neuter gender, singular number, and third person, and it is in the objective case; the object of the active transitive verb *wanted*, and governed by it according to the second part of RULE XXIV. When a nominative case comes between the relative and the verb, the relative is governed by some word in its own member of the sentence. It is also governed by the active transitive verb *wanted*, according to RULE VIII. But when a relative

pronoun becomes the object of an active transitive verb, we only quote the second part of RULE XXIV for its government.

Parse the following sentences:

"That man is fortunate who escapes censure." "The girl whom I saw perished." "You taught the boy whose hat I found." "That house which stands on the hill, belongs to me." "I will leave what is useless." "James will do what is proper."

VERBS.

Q.—What is a *verb?*

A.—**A Verb** is a word which signifies to be, to do, or, to suffer; as, *I am; I rule; I am ruled;* or,

A VERB is a word that expresses *action* or *being;* or,

A VERB is a word which expresses *affirmation.*

These definitions, and others of the verb, have all the same signification, and all the same defect; yet they answer all practical purposes.

Q.—How many kinds of *verbs* are there?

A.—Verbs are of three kinds; *active*, *passive*, and *neuter.* they are also divided into *regular*, *irregular*, and *defective.*

What is an *active verb*, and how many kinds of active verbs are there?

A.—**1. An Active Verb** expresses action, and the *nominative case* is the actor, or subject of the verb; as, "*John writes.*" Active verbs are either *transitive* or *intransitive.*

Q.—When is an active verb transitive?

A.—An active verb is transitive when it either has or may have an object after it; as, "John beats William."

Q.—When is an active verb intransitive?

A.—An active verb is intransitive when it neither has nor can have an object after it; as "John walks."

Q.—How can you tell when an active verb is transitive or intransitive?

A.—When we can place *him* or *it* after any active verb, and make sense, it is transitive; otherwise, it is intransitive. Thus *love*, *help*, *conquer*, *reach*, *subdue*, *overcome*, will all make sense by placing *him*, or *it*, after them; as I love *him*, or *it*, &c.

But an active intransitive verb will not make sense in this way, which fact will be shown by the following examples: *Smile*, *go*, *come*, *play*, *bark*, *walk*, *fly*. We cannot say, if we mean to convey sense, I *smile* him or *it*, &c., hence you perceive that these verbs are not transitive, but intransitive.

Q.—What different kinds of actions do active verbs express?

A.—If you reflect upon these examples for a few moments you will have a clear conception of the nature of transitive and intransitive verbs. It is necessary further to remark, that some transitive and intransitive verbs express what is called a *mental* or *moral* action; and others, a *corporeal* or *physical* action. Verbs expressing the different affections or operations of the mind, denote moral actions; as, Washington *loved* his country; James *hates* vice; we *believe the* tale; to *repent*, to *relent*, to *think*, to *reflect*, to *mourn*, to *muse*, &c. Those expressing the actions produced by matter, denote physical actions; as The *dog hears* the bell; Columbus *discovered* America; to *see*, to *feel*, to *taste*, to *smell*, to *run*, to *talk*, to *fly*, to *strike*, to *write*, &c.

Q.—How is the verb *resembles*, and some others treated?

A.—In the sentence, "Charles *resembles* his father," the verb *resembles* does not appear to express any action at all; yet the construction of the sentence, and the office which the verb performs, are such that we are obliged to parse it

as an *active-transitive* verb, governing the noun *father*, in the objective case. This you may easily reconcile in your mind, by reflecting that the verb has a *direct reference* to its object. The following verbs are of this character: *Have*, *own*, *retain;* as, I *have* a book.

Q.—What does a passive verb denote?

A.—**2. A Passive Verb** denotes action *received* or *endured* by the person or thing, which is in the nominative; as, "The *boy is beaten* by his father.

Q.—How is this explained?

A.—You perceive that the nominative *boy*, in this example, is not represented as the actor, but as the object of the action expressed by the verb *is beaten;* that is, the boy *receives* or *endures* the action performed by his father; therefore *boy* is a *passive* nominative. And you observe, too, that the verb *is beaten*, denotes the *action* received or endured by the nominative; therefore *is beaten* is a *passive* verb.

Q.—How do you further explain active and passive nominatives?

A.—If I say, John *kicked* the horse, John is an active nominative, because he performed or produced the action; but if I say, John *was kicked* by the horse, John is a passive nominative, because he received or endured the action. Hence, you see that when the verb is active, its nominative is likewise active; and when the verb is passive, its nominative is likewise passive; and that the *object* of the active verb becomes the *nominative* or *subject* of the passive verb.

Q.—When is the passive voice a convenient mode of expression?

A.—The passive voice is a convenient mode of expression on occasions when we wish to state *what* has been done, without exposing the author; thus instead of saying, "Wil-

liam struck John," I can, to avoid alluding to William, say, "John was struck."

Q.—How are all passive verbs formed?

A.—All passive verbs *are formed* by adding the *perfect* participle of an active transitive verb, to the neuter verb *to be.*

Q.—What does the neuter verb express?

A.—**3. A Neuter Verb** expresses neither action nor passion, but *being*, or *a state of being;* as, *John sits.*

Q.—How is John represented in the foregoing example; and what similarity exists between the neuter gender and the neuter verb?

A.—In this example, John is not represented as an actor, but as the subject of the verb *sits*, therefore John is in the *nominative case* to the verb. And you know that the word *sits* does not express *apparent action* but a *condition of being;* that is, it represents John in a particular *state of existence;* therefore *sits* is a *neuter verb.* In speaking of the neuter gender of nouns, I informed you that *neuter* means *neither;* from which it follows that neuter gender implies neither gender; that is, neither masculine nor feminine. Hence, by an easy transition of thought, you learn, that *neuter*, when applied to verbs, means neither of the other two classes; that is, a *neuter* verb is one which is neither active nor passive. In these examples, The man stands; The lady lives; The child sleeps; The world exists; the words, *stands*, *lives*, *sleeps*, and *exists*, are *neuter verbs*; and the nouns, *man*, *lady*, *child*, and *world*, are all in the *nominative case*, because each is the subject of a verb. Thus, you perceive,that when a noun is in the nominative case to an *active* verb, it is the actor; when in the nominative case to a passive verb, it is the receiver or sufferer of the action expressed by the verb; and when it is nominative

to a neuter verb, it is neither an actor nor receiver, but simply the subject of the verb.

Q.—In what two ways do neuter verbs express being?

A.—Some neuter verbs express *being in general;* as, The man *is*; Kingdoms *exist.* Others express *being in some* particular state; as, The man *stands*, *sits*, *lies*, or *hangs.*

I will now illustrate the active, passive, and neuter nominatives, by a few examples.

1. Active Nominatives; as, "The *boy* beats the dog;" "The *lady* sings;" "The *ball* rolls;" "The *man* walks."

2. Passive Nominatives; as, "The *boy* is beaten;" "The *lady* is loved;" "The *ball* is rolled;" "The *man* was killed."

3. Neuter Nominatives; as, "The *boy* remains idle;" "The *lady* is beautiful;" "This *ball* lies on the ground;" "The *man* lives in town."

Q.—What belong to verbs?

A.—To VERBS BELONG *number*, *person*, *mood*, *tense*, and *voice.*

NUMBER AND PERSON OF VERBS.

You recollect that the nominative is the *actor* or subject, and the active verb expresses the *action* performed by the nominative. By this you perceive that a very intimate connection or relation exists between the nominative case and the verb. If, therefore, only *one* creature or thing acts, only *one* action, at the same instant, can be done; as, The girl *writes.* The nominative *girl* is here of the singular number, because it means but one person; and the verb *writes* denotes but one action, which the girl performs; therefore the verb *writes* is of the *singular* number, agreeing with its nominative, *girl.* When the nominative case is *plural*, the verb must be *plural;* as, *girls write.* Take

notice, the *singular* verb ends in *s*, but the noun is generally *plural* when it ends in *s;* thus, "The girl *writes;*" "The *girls* write."

Q.—What is meant by the persons of verbs?

A.—**Person,** strictly speaking, is a quality that belongs *not* to *verbs*, but to nouns and pronouns. We say, however, that the verb must agree with its nominative in *person*, as well as in number; that is, the verb must be spelled and spoken in such a manner as to correspond with the *first*, *second* or *third* person of the noun or pronoun which is its nominative.

I will now show you how the verb is varied in order to agree with its nominative in number and person. I, thou, he, she, it; we, ye, or you, they, are *personal pronouns. I* is of the *first* person, and *singular* number; *Thou* is *second* person; *He*, *She*, or *It*, is *third* person, *singular; We*, is *first* person, *plural; Ye*, or *you*, is *second* person, *plural; They*, is *third* person, *plural.* These pronouns are the representatives of nouns, and perform the same office that the nouns would for which they stand. When placed before the verb, they are, therefore, the *nominatives* to the verb.

Notice, particularly, the different variations or endings of the verb, as it is thus conjugated in the

INDICATIVE MOOD, PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
1st person.	I walk.	1st person.	We walk.
2d person.	Thou walkest.	2d person.	Ye or you walk.
3d person.	He walks, or the boy walks, or walketh.	3d person.	They walk, or the boys walk.

This display of the verb shows you that whenever it ends in *est*, it is of the *second* person, *singular;* but when the verb ends in *s*, or *eth*, it is of the *third* person, singular.

Walkest, *ridest*, *standest*, are of the second person, singular; and *walks* or *walketh*, *rides* or *rideth*, *stands* or *standeth*, are of the third person singular.

I have told you that when the nominative is singular number, the verb must be; when the nominative is plural, the verb must be; and when the nominative is first, second, or third person, the verb must be of the same person. If you look again at the foregoing conjugation of *walk*, you will notice that the verb varies its endings in the singular, in order to agree in *form* with the first, second and third person of its nominative; but in the *plural* it does not vary its endings from the first person, singular. The verb, however, agrees in *sense* with its nominative in the plural, as well as in the singular. Exercise a little mind, and you will perceive that *agreement* and *government* in language do not consist *merely* in the *form* of words. Now, is it not clear, that when I say, I *walk*, the verb walk is *singular*, because it expresses but one action? And when I say, two men *walk*, is it not equally apparent that *walk* is *plural*, because it expresses *two* actions? In the sentence, Ten men *walk*, the verb *walk* denotes *ten* actions, for there are ten actors. Common sense teaches you that there must be as many *actions* as there are *actors;* and that the verb, when it has no form or ending to show it, is as strictly plural as when it has. So, in the phrase, *We* walk, the verb walk is *first* person, because it expresses the actions performed by the *speakers; Ye* or *you* walk, the verb is *second* person; denoting the actions of the persons *spoken* to; third person, they *walk*. The verb then, when correctly written, always agrees in sense with its nominative in number and person. This clearly illustrates the truth of the remarks or demonstrations under RULE VI, and RULE VII.

For a full illustration of the verb, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 84.

MOOD OR MODE.

Q.—What is *Mood* or Mode?

A.—**Mood or Mode** is a particular form of the verb, showing the manner in which the *being*, *action*, or *passion* is represented.

Q.—How many *Moods* have verbs?

A.—There are five Moods of verbs, namely: THE INDICATIVE; THE POTENTIAL; THE SUBJUNCTIVE; THE IMPERATIVE; and THE INFINITIVE.

Q.—What is the indicative Mood used for?

A.—**The Indicative Mood** is used simply for *asserting*, *indicating*, or *declaring* a thing, or *asking a question*; as, "I walk;" "Do I walk?"

Q.—How may the indicative Mood be known?

A.—**The Indicative Mood** may be known by the sense, or by its having no sign except in asking a question; as, "Who comes here?"

Q.—What is the potential Mood used for?

A.—**The Potential Mood** is used for expressing *possibility*, *liberty*, *power*, *will*, *obligation*, or *necessity*, either with or without asking a question; as, "I may go;" "May I go?" "He must read," &c.

Q.—What has the potential Mood for its signs?

A.—**The Potential Mood** has for its signs the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should;* as, "I could love," &c.

Q.—Why are all these different forms of representing actions considered in the potential mood?

A.—In order to prevent multiplying moods to a great and almost numberless extent.

Q.—What is the subjunctive Mood used for?

A.—**The Subjunctive Mood** is used for expressing *doubt* or *uncertainty;* as, "He will escape punishment, *if he* repent."

Q.—What does the word subjunctive signify?

A.—The term *subjunctive* signifies *subjoined*, or *added to*. When I say, "I will go, if he desire it," the phrase, "if he desire it," is added on to the one before it, hence we say, "if he desire it," is in the subjunctive mood. The term, however, is limited to such sentences as are preceded by the conjunctions *if*, *unless*, *although*, *except*, *lest*, &c., which imply doubt or some uncertainty.

Q.—In how many forms may a verb in the subjunctive Mood be expressed?

A.—A verb in the subjunctive mood may be expressed in two different forms. It is equally correct to say, "If he *is* poor, he is respected," and "If he *be* studious, he will excel." The verbs *be* and *is* are both in the present tense; and since each has the conjunction *if* before it, each is in the subjunctive mood.

Q.—What does the phrase, "If he be studious," mean?

A.—The phrase, "If he be studious," means the same as "If he *will be* studious," it therefore plainly implies future time.

Q.—What is meant by the phrase, "If he is poor?"

A.—On the contrary, in the phrase, "If he is poor" the sense plainly is, "If he is now, at the present time, poor," without any reference to future time.

Q.—What appears from these two examples?

A.—Hence it appears, that in one form of the verb, *doubt* only is implied; and in the other, both *doubt* and *future time*.

REMARK.—The verb *is* corresponds with the common form of the verb to be, in the indicative mood, present tense, as "I am, you are, he is;" we will therefore, when the verb is varied as usual, call it the *common form* of the subjunctive mood; and when the verb is not varied in the different persons, we will call it the *subjunctive* form, since this form is peculiar to

this mood. You should here be informed that this distinction relates only to the present tense, it being customary to vary the terminations of the verb in the remaining tenses as usual.

Q.—What general rules explain the proper use of the subjunctive Mood?

A.—The following general rules will direct you in the proper use of the *subjunctive* mood:

1. When any verb in the subjunctive mood, present tense, has a reference to future time, we should use the

SUBJUNCTIVE FORM.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1st person. If I love,	1st person. If we love,
2d person. If thou or you love,	2d person. If ye or you love,
3d person. If he love.	3d person. If they love.

2. When a verb in the subjunctive mood, present tense, has no reference to future time, we should use the

COMMON FORM.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1st person. If I love,	1st person. If we love,
2d person. If thou lovest, or If you love,	2d person. If ye love, or If you love,
3d person. If he loves.	3d person. If they love.

Q.—Are any other conjunctions, besides *if* used before the subjunctive mood?

A.—Yes, other conjunctions, besides *if*, are used before the subjunctive mood. *If* is perhaps used most frequently, because it implies doubt more strongly than most others.

Q.—What can be seen by the foregoing?

A.—By the foregoing, it will be seen that when the verb is in the subjunctive form, some auxiliary verb is always

understood; as, "He will not be pardoned, unless he repent;" that is, "unless he will repent;" "If thou ever return, thou shouldst be thankful;" that is, "if thou shouldst ever return."

Q.—How is a verb in the indicative mood converted into the subjunctive?

A.—A verb in the indicative mood is converted into the subjunctive, common form, simply by placing a conjunction, implying doubt, before it; as, "I walk;" the indicative mood, becomes subjunctive by prefixing *if;* thus, "*If* I walk."

Q.—How are verbs in the potential mood changed to the subjunctive.

A.—In like manner, a verb in the potential may be changed to the subjunctive; as, "I can go," is the potential; "*If* I can go," the subjunctive.

Q.—What are the usual signs of the subjunctive mood?

A.—The subjunctive mood has usually for its signs the conjunctions *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, and *lest;* as, "*unless* he repent," &c.

Q.—Is there any difference between the subjunctive mood, common form, and the indicative mood?

A.—The subjunctive mood, common form, and the indicative mood, are exactly alike; placing any conditional conjunction before the nominative of the verb in the indicative will convert the indicative into the subjunctive.

Q.—What is the IMPERATIVE MOOD used for?

A.—**The Imperative Mood** is used for *commanding*, *exhorting*, *entreating*, or *permitting;* as, "*Study* your lesson;" "*Obey* your parents;" "*Save* my child;" "*Go* in peace."

When I say, "John, *mind* your book," I command John to do something; and because *imperative* means *commanding*,

we say, that *mind*, in the phrase above, is in the imperative mood.

Q.—Does the imperative mood embrace many forms?

A.—This mood, like the potential, embraces several forms for expressing different actions, and for the like reason.

Q.—To what person is this mood limited?

A.—The application of this mood is limited to the second person; as, "John, come to me;" because in uttering a command, making an entreaty, &c., we must necessarily address some one; hence you can see the reason why this mood has but one person, viz.: the second.

Q.—Can a verb in this mood have any past time?

A.—We cannot, with any propriety, command a person to-day, or in present time, to do any thing in past time; yesterday, for instance; consequently a verb in this mood cannot have any past time.

Q.—Can a verb in this mood have any future time?

A.—When I command a person to do any thing, the performance of the command must take place in a period of time subsequent to that of the command, that is, in future time; but the command itself must, from the very nature of the case, take place in present time; this mood, therefore, cannot, strictly speaking, have any future tense.

Q.—What then must be the tense, and person, of a verb in the imperative mood?

A.—A verb in the imperative mood must be in the present tense, and in the second person.

Q.—How may the imperative mood be distinguished?

A.—The imperative mood may be distinguished by its always being in the second person, and by its agreement with *thou*, or *ye* or *you*, expressed or understood; as, "Depart thou," &c.

Q.—What does the infinitive mood express?

A.—**The Infinitive Mood** is used to express an action not limited either by number or person; as, *to play*, *to sing*, *to walk*, *to learn*, *to love*, &c.

In the phrases, "John begins to sing," "The boys begin to sing," "Thou beginnest to sing," you perceive that the verb *to sing* is not varied to correspond with the number and person of its different agents, *John*, *the boys*, and *thou;* hence, *to sing*, is said not to be limited either by number or person.

This mood, then, is properly denominated *infinitive*, signifying *not limited.*

To, the usual sign of this mood, is sometimes understood; as, "Let me *go*," instead of, "Let me *to* go," "I heard him say it," for "I heard him *to* say it." This little word *to*, when used before verbs in this manner, is uot a preposition, but forms a part of the verb, and, in parsing, should be so considered.

REMARK.—For a demonstration of the moods, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 89.

TENSE.

Q.—What is TENSE, and how many variations does it admit of?

A.—**Tense** is the distinction of time, and admits of six variations, namely; *The present*, *the imperfect*, *the perfect*, *the pluperfect*, and the *first* and *second future tenses.*

Q.—What does the present tense express?

A.—**The Present Tense** expsesses what is now taking place; as, "John swims."

Q.—How else is it employed?

A.—This tense is often employed to express the action of persons long since dead; as, "Seneca reasons and moralizes well."

Q.—What is the sign of the present tense?

A.—The present tense has for its sign the first form of the verb; as, *weep*, *remain*, &c., except the occasional use of *do;* as, "I *do* learn."

Q.—What does the imperfect tense express?

A.—**The Imperfect Tense** expresses what took place in past time, however distant; as, "John died."

Q.—What is the sign of the imperfect tense?

A.—The imperfect tense has no auxiliary for a sign, except *did*, which is sometimes used. If, however, the verb is not in the present tense, and has no auxiliary, it follows that it is in the imperfect; as, "I fought."

Q.—What does the perfect tense express?

A.—**The Perfect Tense** expresses what has taken place in past time, and also conveys an allusion to the present time; as, "I have written."

Q.—When should the *imperfect tense*, and also, the perfect tense be used?

A.—When any particular period of past time is specified or alluded to, we use the imperfect tense; as, "John wrote yesterday;" but when no particular past time is specified, we use the perfect tense; as, "I have read Virgil many times."

Q.—What has the perfect tense for its sign?

A.—The perfect tense has for its sign the word *have;* as, *have loved.*

Q.—What does the *pluperfect tense* express?

A.—**The Pluperfect Tense** expresses what had taken place at or before some past time mentioned; as, "I *had* finished my letter before my father returned."

Q.—What has it for its sign?

A.—The pluperfect tense has for its sign the word *had;* as, *had loved.*

Q.—What does the first future tense express?

A.—**The First Future Tense** expresses what will take place hereafter; as, "John *will* come."

Q.—What has it for its sign?

A.—The first future tense has for its sign *shall* or *will;* as, *shall* or *will love.*

Q.—What does the second future tense express?

A.—**The Second Future Tense** expresses what will have taken place, at or before some future time mentioned; as, "I *shall have* finished my business before the steamboat starts."

Q.—What has it for its sign?

A.—The second future tense has for its sign *shall have* or *will have;* as *shall have loved* or *will have loved.*

Q.—How many tenses has each mood?

A.—The indicative mood has six tenses.

The Subjunctive mood has six tenses.

The Potential mood has four tenses.

The Imperative mood has one tense.

The Infinitive mood has two tenses.

REMARK.—For a clear demonstration of the tenses, see Carroll's large grammar, page 92. And for a full explanation of the *present*, *imperfect* and *perfect* tenses see page 90.

Some authors have changed the names of some of the tenses as follows:

The *Present* is called the *Present.* The *Imperfect* is called the *Past.* The *Perfect* is called the *Present perfect.* The *Pluperfect* is called the *Past perfect.* The *First future* is called the *Future.* The *Second future* is called the *Future perfect.*

Good reason can be assigned, for changing the name of the *imperfect tense* to that of the *past tense;* the word *imperfect* means *unfinished* or *incomplete.* In the sentence,

"John *was writing* when I saw him," the verb, *was writing*, denotes an action unfinished in past time, and corresponds with what is usually denominated in *Latin*, the *imperfect tense;* hence, the origin of the name selected by English grammarians to denote action past and finished, a term not at all significant of an action finished in past time. With this explanation we can understand why the time of an act performed in past time is called the imperfect tense, just as well as we can understand why the article *the* is called definite. And as I can see no reason for changing the names of the other tenses, I have retained the original tenses, out of respect for their *venerable antiquity.*

PARTICIPLES.

Q.—What is a participle?

A.—**A Participle** is a word derived from a verb, and partakes of the nature of a verb and adjective.

In the phrase "I found a man laboring in the field," the word *laboring* shows what the man was doing, and therefore resembles a verb. When I say, "The *laboring* man should not be wronged," *laboring* is joined to the noun man, to describe it, and therefore resembles an adjective. The word *laboring* then, partakes of the nature of two parts of speech, and since *participle* signifies *partaking of*, all such words as *laboring* are called participles.

Q.—What are all participles derived from?

A.—All participles are derived from verbs; thus, from *labor*, comes *laboring;* from *beat*, *beating;* from *rejoice*, *rejoicing*; &c.

Q.—How many participles have verbs?

A.—Verbs have three participles; the present or active (sometimes called the imperfect); the perfect or passive, and the compound perfect.

Q.—What does the present participle express?

A.—The present participle expresses what is now taking place, but not finished; as, "John is *writing;*" the participle *writing* shows what John is now doing, but has not finished; *writing*, then, may be called a present participle, and because it denotes *action*, it may be called *active;* and because it expresses unfinished action, it may properly be called *imperfect.*

Q.—In what does the present participle always end?

A.—This participle always ends in *ing;* as *sinning*, *fighting*, *weeping*, *loving*, &c., and is usually formed by adding *ing* to the present tense of the verb.

Q.—Are all words ending in *ing* participles?

A.—There are, however, many words with this termination, which are not participles; as *morning*, *evening*, *hireling*, *sapling*, which are nouns; *uninteresting*, *unsatisfying*, *unbelieving*, *uncontrolling*, which are adjectives. The fact that these cannot be formed from verbs will furnish you with a certain rule for distinguishing the participle from all other words of the same termination; as for instance, there is such a verb as *interest*, hence you know that the word *interesting* is a participle, but there is no such verb as *uninterest*, consequently *uninteresting* can *not* be a participle, but it is an adjective; as, an *uninteresting* story. You will be able very easily to distinguish the participle from the other parts of speech, when you shall have acquired a more extensive knowledge of the verb.

Q.—What does the perfect or passive participle denote?

A.—The perfect or passive participle denotes action or being perfected or finished. When derived from a regular verb it ends in *ed*, and corresponds with the imperfect tense; as, *ruled*, *smiled.* "The letter is *written.*" Here the participle *written* shows that the act of writing is past and

finished. This participle may always be distinguished by its making sense with *having;* thus, *having written*, *having sung*, &c. Here *written* and *sung* are perfect participles. It is called *perfect* when associated with *have* and *passive* when it is associated with *be.*

Q.—What does the compound perfect participle express?

A.—The compound perfect participle expresses what took place before something else mentioned; as, "John *having written* his letter, sealed it." Here you doubtless perceive that the act of writing took place before that of sealing; also, that the participle is composed of two words, *having* and *written;* it may then be called a *compound participle*, and because it denotes also an action past and finished, it may very properly be called a compound perfect participle.

Q.—How is this participle formed?

A.—This participle is formed by placing the present participle *having* before the perfect participle of any verb; as, *having fought*, *having ciphered*, &c.

Q.—How are participles otherwise used?

A.—Participles are sometimes used as nouns; as, "Playing is pleasant;" "He spends too much time in playing." Participles, when used as nouns, may be called *participial nouns.* These participial nouns, in their use, resemble the infinitive more than they do the participle in its adjective sense. "*Playing* is pleasant," and "*to play* is pleasant," signify the same thing.

Q.—Why should the participle be classed as a separate and distinct part of speech?

A.—By many writers the participle is classed with the verb and treated as a part of it, but as it has no nominative, partakes of the nature of an adjective, requires many syntactical rules which apply not to the verb, and, in some other respects, has properties peculiar to itself; it is believed that

its character is sufficiently distinct from the verb to entitle it to the rank of a separate part of speech; it is, in fact, the connecting link between, not only the adjective and the verb, but also the noun and the verb.

Q.—Is there any difference in the *form* of the perfect and passive participles?

A.—The perfect and passive participles are always the same in form. They take those different names from the manner in which they are used.

Q.—When are they called perfect, and why?

A.—They are called *perfect* when associated with, or joined to the verb *have* or any variation of it, because it is this combination that forms the *perfect*, *pluperfect*, and *second future* tenses.

Q.—When are they called passive, and why?

A.—They are called *passive* when associated with, or joined to the verb *to be* or any variation of it, because it is this combination that forms the passive voice in all of its forms.

Q.—How do you know that *struck* is a perfect participle?

A.—*Struck* is a perfect participle from the verb *strike*, and this you know, because it makes sense with *having;* as, *having struck.*

Q.—By joining *is* with *struck*, what is formed?

A.—*Is*, you doubtless recollect, is a variation of the verb to be; as, "I am, you are, he is;" now by joining *is* with *struck*, we can form the passive verb, *is struck.* "John strikes Joseph," is active; but, "Joseph is struck by John," is passive.

Q.—Is there any difference in the meaning of these two expressions?

A.—In these two examples you perceive that the sense of each is the same, hence, by means of the passive verb,

we are enabled to express in a different form, the precise meaning of the active, which you will oftentimes find, contributes not a little to the variety and harmony of the language.

Q.—How many variations has the verb *to be*, and what are they?

A.—By examining the conjugation of the verb *to be*, you will discover that it has, in all, ten variations, namely: *am*, *art*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *wast*, *were*, *been*, *be* and *being;* every passive verb must be composed of one of these ten variations, and the perfect participle of any active transitive verb. Thus, taking *was*, and joining it with the perfect participle of the verb *beat*, namely, *beaten*, we form the passive verb *was beaten*, to which prefixing an object, or nominative case, we have the phrase, "William was beaten."

Q.—What fact should be remembered?

A.—It is a fact worthy to be remembered, that the passive verb always retains the same mood, tense, number and person, that the verb *to be* has, before it is incorporated with the participle; thus, "He has been," is in the indicative mood, perfect tense, singular number, and third person; and, "He has been rejected," is likewise the indicative mood, perfect tense, singular number, and third person, in the passive voice. You will, therefore, have no difficulty in telling the mood, tense, number, and person of any passive verb when you become familiar with the conjugation of the verb *to be.*

Q.—Has the passive voice the participle in *ing*?

A.—The passive voice has not the participle in *ing.* "I am following," is not passive; but, "I am followed," is.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

Q.—What are auxiliary verbs?

A.—**Auxiliary Verbs** are those, by the help of which, the principal verbs are conjugated.

Q.—Which are the auxiliary verbs?

A.—The auxiliary verbs are, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, and *shall*. The following are sometimes auxiliaries, and sometimes principal verbs: *do*, *be*, *have* and *will*. They are principal verbs when used alone, and auxiliaries when associated with other verbs.

Q.—When an auxiliary verb is used in the formation of any tense, what is that tense called?

A.—When, in the formation of any tense, we use an auxiliary verb, that tense is called a compound tense, and the tense formed by the principal verb alone, is called a simple tense.

Now I hope you will so far consult your own ease and advantage as to commit, perfectly, the signs of the moods and tenses before you proceed farther than the subjunctive mood. If you do, the supposed herculean task of learning to conjugate verbs, will be transformed into a few hours of pleasant pastime.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

Q.—What is meant by *voice* in grammar?

A.—When I ask you to raise your *voice* in reading, you readily understand what I mean by *voice;* but in grammar its application is somewhat peculiar. Grammatically considered, it refers to the active and passive nature of verbs.

Q.—What is the conjugation of a verb?

A.—The Conjugation of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several numbers, persons, moods, and tenses.

Q.—What is the conjugation of active and passive verbs styled?

A.—*The Conjugation* of an active verb is styled the *active voice*, and that of a passive verb the *passive voice.*

Q.—When are verbs called *regular*, and irregular?

A.—Verbs are called *regular* when they form their imperfect tense of the indicative mood, and their perfect participle, by the addition of *ed* to the verb in the present tense, or *d* only when the verb ends in *e;* as,

Pres. Tense.	*Imp. Tense.*	*Perf. Participle.*
I favor,	I favored,	Favored.
I love,	I loved,	Loved.

When a verb does not form its imperfect tense and perfect participle in this manner, it is called an irregular verb; as,

Pres. Tense.	*Imp. Tense.*	*Perf. Participle.*
I am,	I was,	Been.
I write,	I wrote,	Written.

The regular verb *love*, and the irregular verb *to be*, are conjugated as follows:

CONJUGATION.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I love.	1st Per. I am.
2nd Per. You love.	2nd Per. You are.
3rd Per. He loves.	3rd Per. He is.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We love.	1st Per. We are.
2nd Per. You love.	2nd Per. You are.
3rd Per. They love.	3rd Per. They are.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I loved.	1st Per. I was.
2nd Per. You loved.	2nd Per. You were.
3rd Per. He loved.	3rd Per. He was.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We loved.	1st Per. We were.
2nd Per. You loved.	2nd Per. You were.
3rd Per. They loved.	3rd Per. They were.

PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I have loved.	1st Per. I have been.
2nd Per. You have loved.	2nd Per. You have been.
3rd Per. He has loved.	3rd Per. He has been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st. Per. We have loved.	1st Per. We have been.
2nd Per. You have loved.	2nd Per. You have been.
3rd Per. They have loved.	3rd Per. They have been.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I had loved.	1st Per. I had been.
2nd Per. You had loved.	2nd Per. You had been.
3rd Per. He had loved.	3rd Per. He had been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We had loved.	1st Per. We had been.
2nd Per. You had loved.	2nd Per. You had been.
3rd Per. They had loved.	3rd Per. They had been.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I shall or will love.	1st Per. I shall or will be.
2nd Per. You shall or will love.	2nd Per. You shall or will be.
3rd. Per. He shall or will love.	3rd Per. He shall or will be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We shall or will love.	1st Per. We shall or will be.
2nd Per. You shall or will love.	2nd Per. You shall or will be.
3rd Per. They shall or will love.	3rd Per. They shall or will be.

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I shall have loved.	1st Per. I shall have been.
2nd Per. You shall have loved.	2nd Per. You shall have been.
3rd Per. He shall have loved.	3rd Per. He shall have been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We shall have loved.	1st Per. We shall have been.
2nd Per. You will have loved.	2nd Per. You will have been.
3rd Per. They will have loved.	3rd Per. They will have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I may or can love.	1st Per. I may or can be.
2nd Per. You may or can love.	2nd Per. You may or can be.
3rd Per. He may or can love.	3rd Per. He may or can be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We may or can love.	1st Per. We may or can be.
2nd Per. You may or can love.	2nd Per. You may or can be.
3rd Per. They may or can love.	3rd Per. They may or can be.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I might, could, would, or should love.	1st Per. I might, could, would, or should be.
2nd Per. You might, could, would, or should love.	2nd Per. You might, could, would, or should be.
3rd Per. He might, could, would, or should love.	3rd Per. He might, could, would, or should be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We might, could, would, or should love.	1st Per. We might, could, would, or should be.
2nd Per. You might, could, would, or should love.	2nd Per. You might, could, would, or should be.
3rd Per. They might, could, would, or should love.	3rd Per. They might, could, would, or should be.

PERFECT TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I may or can have loved.	1st Per. I may or can have been.
2nd Per. You may or can have loved.	2nd Per. You may or can have been.
3rd Per. He may or can have loved.	3rd Per. He may or can have been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We may or can have loved.	1st Per. We may or can have been.
2nd Per. You may or can have loved.	2nd Per. You may or can have been.
3rd Per. They may or can have loved.	3rd Per. They may or can have been.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. I might, could, would or should have loved.	1st Per. I might, could, would or should have been.
2nd Per. You might, could, would or should have loved.	2nd Per. You might, could, would or should have been.
3rd Per. He might, could, would or should have loved.	3rd Per. He might, could, would or should have been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. We might, could, would or should have loved.	1st Per. We might, could, would or should have been.
2nd Per. You might, could, would or should have loved.	2nd Per. You might, could, would or should have been.
3rd Per. They might, could, would or should have loved.	3rd Per. They might, could, would or should have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.—PRESENT TENSE.

COMMON FORM.

ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. If I love.	1st Per. If I am.
2nd Per. If you love.	2nd Per. If you are.
3rd Per. If he loves.	3rd Per. If he is.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. If we love.	1st Per. If we are.
2nd Per. If you love.	2nd Per. If you are.
3rd Per. If they love.	3rd Per. If they are.

SUBJUNCTIVE FORM.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. If I love.	1st Per. If I be.
2nd Per. If you love.	2nd Per. If you be.
3rd Per. If he love.	3rd Per. If he be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. If we love.	1st Per. If we be,
2nd Per. If you love.	2nd Per. If you be.
3rd Per. If they love.	3rd Per. If they be.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

COMMON FORM.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. If I loved.	1st Per. If I was.
2nd Per. If you loved.	2nd Per. If you were.
3rd Per. If he loved.	3rd Per. If he was.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. If we loved.	1st Per. If we were.
2nd Per. If you loved.	2nd Per. If you were.
3rd Per. If they loved.	3rd Per. If they were.

SUBJUNCTIVE FORM.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. If I loved.	1st Per. If I were.
2nd Per. If you loved.	2nd Per. If you were.
3rd Per. If he loved.	3rd Per. If he were.

ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. If we loved.	1st Per. If we were.
2nd Per. If you loved.	2nd Per. If you were.
3rd Per. If they loved.	3rd Per. If they were.

The remaining tenses are all of the Common Form.

PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. If I have loved.	1st Per. If I have been.
2nd Per. If you have loved.	2nd Per. If you have been.
3rd Per. If he has loved.	3rd Per. If he has been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. If we have loved.	1st Per. If we have been.
2nd Per. If you have loved.	2nd Per. If you have been.
3rd Per. If they have loved.	3rd Per. If they have been.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. If I had loved.	1st Per. If I had been.
2nd Per. If you had loved.	2nd Per. If you had been.
3rd Per. If he had loved.	3rd Per. If he had been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. If we had loved.	1st Per. If we had been.
2nd Per. If you had loved.	2nd Per. If you had been.
3rd Per. If they had loved.	3rd Per. If they had been.

FIRST FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. If I shall *or* will love.	1st Per. If I shall *or* will be.
2nd Per. If you shall *or* will love.	2nd Per. If you shall *or* will be.
3rd Per. If he shall *or* will love.	3rd Per. If he shall *or* will be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. If we shall *or* will love.	1st Per. If we shall *or* will be.
2nd Per. If you shall *or* will love.	2nd Per. If you shall *or* will be.
3rd Per. If they shall *or* will love.	3rd Per. If they shall *or* will be.

SECOND FUTURE TENSE.

ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1st Per. If I shall *or* will have loved.	1st Per. If I shall *or* will have been.
2nd Per. If you shall *or* will have loved.	2nd Per. If you shall *or* will have been.
3rd Per. If he shall *or* will have loved.	3rd Per. If he shall *or* will have been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st Per. If we shall *or* will have loved.	1st Per. If we shall *or* will have been.
2nd Per. If you shall *or* will have loved.	2nd Per. If you shall *or* will have been.
3rd Per. If they shall *or* will have loved.	3rd Per. If they shall *or* will have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Singular.*
2nd Per. Love you *or* do you love.	2nd Per. Be you or do you be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
2nd Per. Love you *or* do you love.	2nd Per. Be you *or* do you be.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. To love.	Pres. To be.
Perf. To have loved.	Perf. To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	Loving.	Pres.	Being.
Perf.	Loved.	Perf.	Been.
Comp. Perf.	Having loved.	Comp. Perf.	Having been.

For the benefit of those who wish to retain the pronoun *thou*, in the conjugation of verbs, the following synopsis is given. The learner can take it separately, or be taught it

in connection with the other persons of the verb, by substituting *thou* for *you*, (of the singular number), in the foregoing conjugation.

SYNOPSIS WITH THOU.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Pres.	Thou lovest.	Thou art.
Imp.	Thou lovedst.	Thou wast.
Perf.	Thou hast loved.	Thou hast been.
Plup.	Thou hadst loved.	Thou hadst been.
1st Fut.	Thou shalt or wilt love.	Thou shalt or wilt be.
2nd Fut.	Thou wilt have loved.	Thou wilt have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Pres.	Thou mayest or canst love.	Thou mayest or canst be.
Imp.	Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst or shouldst love.	Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.
Perf.	Thou mayest or canst have loved.	Thou mayest or canst have been.
Plup.	Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have loved.	Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

COMMON FORM.

Pres.	If thou lovest.	If thou art.
Imp.	If thou lovedst.	If thou wast.

SUBJUNCTIVE FORM.

Pres.	If thou love.	If thou be.
Imp.	If thou loved.	If thou wert.

COMMON FORM.

Perf.	If thou hast loved.	If thou hast been.
Plup.	If thou hadst loved.	If thou hadst been.
1st Fut.	If thou shalt or wilt love.	If thou shalt or wilt be.
2nd Fut.	If thou shalt have loved.	If thou shalt have been.

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

INDICATIVE PRESENT.

ACTIVE VOICE.		NEUTER.	
Singular.		*Singular.*	
1st.	Do I love?	1st.	Am I?
2nd.	Do you love?	2nd.	Are you?
3rd.	Does he love?	3rd.	Is he?
Plural.		*Plural.*	
1st.	Do we love?	1st.	Are we?
2nd.	Do you love?	2nd.	Are you?
3rd.	Do they love?	3rd.	Are they?

You will find on examination of the foregoing conjugation that the tenses of the subjunctive are in every respect similar to the corresponding ones of the indicative, except the following, namely, the present and imperfect of the verb *to be;* the present and the second future active. The last, however, corresponds in termination, but not in formation. Among the exceptions should be reckoned the use of the conjunction *if.* There are instances, however, of the subjunctive form, when no conjunction is expressed, but in all such cases it is plainly understood; as, "Were I to *go*, he would not follow;" "Had he known me, he would have treated me differently;" that is, "If I were to go," and, "If he had known." Examples of this description are conjugated as follows:

SUBJUNCTIVE FORM.

IMPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1st. Were I,	1st. Were we,
2nd. Were you,	2nd. Were you.
3rd. Were he.	3rd. Were they.

PLUPERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1st. Had I loved,	1st. Had we loved,
2nd. Had you loved,	2nd. Had you loved,
3rd. Had he loved.	3rd. Had they loved.

The second person singular of all verbs, (except *art*,) formerly ended in *st*, as, "Thou hast," "Thou wast," &c. This form is still retained by that respectable class of persons called Friends, and in the sacred scriptures.

Eth, for the termination of the third person singular, prevailed very generally till within a recent period, especially on grave and didactic subjects; as, "He that *hath* ears to hear let him hear;" "Simple multiplication *teacheth* to repeat," &c., but the custom of the present day is decidedly against this form of expression.

The scriptures abound with instances of the use of the pronoun *ye* for *you;* as, "Ye are the salt of the earth;" but it is scarcely to be met with in any standard work of modern date.

The following conjugation accords with the ancient usage of the verb.

INDICATIVE PRESENT.

ACTIVE VOICE.	NEUTER.
Singular.	*Singular.*
1st. I love,	1st. I am,
2nd. Thou lovest,	2nd. Thou art,
3rd. He loveth, or loves.	3rd. He is.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1st. We love,	1st. We are,
2nd. Ye or you love,	2nd. Ye or you are,
3rd. They love.	3rd. They are.

REMARK.—For further information see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 108.

N. B.—If you have not already learned the lists of *adverbs*, *prepositions* and *conjunctions* do it now. You will find them useful in going through the following exercises.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

PARSE. *John found his hat in the road.*

MODEL. John is a noun—because it is a name; a proper noun—because it is the name of a particular person; masculine gender—because it is the name of a male; third person—because it is spoken of; singular number—it means but one; and is in the nominative case—because it is the subject of a verb; and is the nominative of the verb found;—according to

RULE VI. The nominative case governs the verb in number and person. It will also answer to the question *who*, put before the verb, as, *who* found? Ans. John.

Found, is an irregular active transitive verb; it is irregular because it does not form its imperfect tense and perfect participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the present tense of the indicative mood; as, pres. find; imp. found; perf. part. found; it is active transitive, because it expresses action, and admits an object after it; made in the indicative mood, because it simply indicates or declares a thing; imperfect tense, because it expresses what took place in past time; singular number and third person, because its nominative John is, with which it agrees, according to

RULE VII. A verb must agree with its nominative case in number and person.

His, is a pronoun; a word used instead of a noun; personal—it always represents the same person; masculine gender; singular number, and third person, because John, the noun for which it stands is, and with which it agrees, according to

RULE V. Pronouns must agree with the nouns for which they stand in gender, number and person. Nom. he; poss. his; obj. him; made in the possessive case because it im-

plies possession or ownership, and is governed by the noun hat, according to

Rule I. The possessive case is governed by the following noun.

Hat, is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is a general name; neuter gender, it is the name of an object that is neither male nor female; third person, it is spoken of; singular number, it means but one; and is in the objective case, because it is the object of the active transitive verb found, and is governed by it, according to

Rule VIII. Active transitive verbs govern the objective case.

In, is a preposition, a word used to connect words together, and thereby show the relation between them. It here shows the relation between hat and road.

The, is an article, a word placed before nouns to limit their meaning; definite, it means some particular road, and belongs to the noun road, according to

Rule III. The definite article, the, belongs to nouns in the singular or plural number.

Road, is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is a general name; neuter gender, because it is the name of an object that is neither male nor female; third person, it is spoken of; singular number, it means but one; and in the objective case, because it is the object of the relation denoted by the preposition in, and is governed by it according to

Rule X. Prepositions govern the objective case.

When you become perfectly familiar with attributing to each part of speech its various properties, as in the foregoing mode of parsing, you can then parse according to the following concise plan:

"John found his hat in the road."

John, is a proper noun, masc. gender, sing. num. and third person, nominative to the verb found, according to RULE VI.

Found, is an irregular active transitive verb, made in the indicative mood, imperfect tense, singular number, and third person, and agrees with its nominative John, according to RULE VII.

His, is a personal pronoun, masc. gender, singular number and third person, and in the possessive case, governed by the noun hat, according to RULE I.

Hat, is a common noun, neut. gender, sing. number, and third person, in the objective case, governed by the active transitive verb found, according to RULE VIII.

In, is a preposition, and shows the relation between hat and road.

The, is a definite article, and belongs to the noun road, according to RULE III.

Road, is a common noun, neut. gender, sing. number, and third person, in the objective case, and governed by the preposition in, according to RULE X.

PARSE. "I found John and William in the garden with their father and mohter."

MODEL. And is a *copulative* conjunction; a word used to connect words and sentences; it connects John and William in the same case. According to

RULE XI. Conjunctions usually connect verbs of the same mood and tense, and nouns and pronouns of the same case.

The other *and* connects father and mother in the same case. You observe that John and William are the objects of the active transitive verb found, and father and mother are the objects of the relation denoted by the preposition with, and governed by it according to RULE X. The other words are parsed as before.

You have now a model for parsing all the parts of speech, except the interjection, which will give you no trouble. If you understand what you have been through, your future success is assured. It is not the amount you study that will improve your mind, but the manner in which you study it. If you have studied in the proper manner, you will have no difficulty in parsing the following:

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"The business will be regulated." "The king was crowned at Westminster Abbey." "Thomas has been esteemed." "John was applauded for his eloquence." "James will be rewarded by his instructor." "The girl was ridiculed by her companions." "Susan was respected for her virtuous conduct." "We will be esteemed."

"We may be esteemed." "He might have been promoted." "William would have been dethroned." "Justice may have been stayed." "The task must be performed." "We should not be easily disheartened in a good cause."

"If he be rewarded." "If I am noticed." "Unless he be punished." "Although they are respected." "Columbus discovered America." "America was discovered by Columbus." "John wounded his brother." "John's brother was wounded by him." "The boy who visited me in September, died in the City of Boston." "The man whom I found, perished in a storm of snow." "Although you will be disappointed." "If the man had been elected." "Except he repent." "Susan assisted the little girl." "The little girl was assisted by Susan." "Pain follows pleasure." "Pleasure is followed by pain." "They that seek knowledge will find it." "That lion which was exhibited in this town has been killed by his keeper."

IRREGULAR VERBS.

Irregular verbs are those which do not in the indicative mood form their imperfect tense and perfect participle by adding to the present tense *ed* or *d* only when the verb ends in *e*, as:

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perfect Participle.*
Go,	Went,	Gone.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Some irregular verbs admit likewise a regular form.

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perf. or Pass. Participle.*
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Am—is,	Was,	Been.
Arise,	Arose,	Arisen.
Awake,	Awoke, awaked,	Awaked.
Bear (to bring forth),	Bore, bare,	Born.
Bear (to carry),	Bore,	Borne.
Beat,	Beat,	Beat, beaten.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Bend,	Bended, bent,	Bended, bent.
Bereave,	Bereaved, bereft,	Bereaved, bereft.
Beseech,	Besought,	Besought,
Bestride,	Bestrid, bestrode,	Bestrid, bestridden.
Betide,	Betid, betided,	Betid.
Bid,	Bid, bade,	Bid, bidden.
Bind,	Bound,	Bound.
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten, bit.
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke,	Broken.
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.
Build,	Built, builded,	Built, builded.
Burn,	Burned, burnt,	Burned, burnt.
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perf. or Pass. Participle.*
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch,	Caught, catched,	Caught, catched.
Chide,	Chid,	Chid, chidden.
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen, chose.
Cleave (to split),	Cleft, clove,	Cleft, cloven.
Cling,	Clung,	Clung,
Clothe,	Clothed, clad,	Clothed, clad.
Come,	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Crow,	Crew, crowed,	Crowed.
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare (to venture),	Dared, durst,	Dared.
Deal,	Dealed, dealt,	Dealed, dealt.
Dig,	Dug, digged,	Dug, digged.
Do,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Dream,	Dreamed, dreamt,	Dreamed, dreamt.
Drink,	Drank,	Drunk, drank.
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.
Dwell,	Dwelled, dwelt,	Dwelled, dwelt.
Eat,	Eat, ate,	Eat, eaten.
Fall,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found,	Found.
Flee,	Fled,	Fled.
Fling,	Flung,	Flung.
Fly,	Flew,	Flown.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Get,	Got,	Got, gotten.
Gild,	Gilded, gilt,	Gilded, gilt.
Gird,	Girded, girt,	Girded, girt.
Give,	Gave,	Given.
Go,	Went,	Gone.
Grave,	Graved,	Graven, graved.

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perf. or Pass. Participle.*
Grind,	Ground,	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Hang,	Hanged, hung,	Hanged, hung.
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Heave,	Heaved, hove,	Heaved.
Hew,	Hewed,	Hewed, hewn.
Hide,	Hid,	Hid, hidden.
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.
Hold,	Held,	Held.
Hurt,	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kept,	Kept.
Kneel,	Kneeled, knelt,	Kneeled, knelt.
Knit,	Knit, knitted,	Knit, knitted.
Know,	Knew,	Known.
Lade,	Laded,	Laded, laden.
Lay,	Laid,	Laid.
Lead,	Led,	Led.
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent.
Let,	Let,	Let.
Lie (to recline),	Lay,	Lain.
Light,	Lighted, lit,	Lighted, lit.
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant.
Meet,	Met,	Met.
Mow,	Mowed,	Mowed, mown.
Pay,	Paid,	Paid.
Pen (to coop),	Penned, pent,	Penned, pent.
Put,	Put,	Put.
Quit,	Quit, quitted,	Quit, quitted.
Read,	Read,	Read.
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Rid,	Rid, ridden,	Rid, ridden.
Ride,	Rode,	Ridden.
Ring,	Rang, rung,	Rung.
Rise,	Rose,	Risen.

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perf. or Pass. Participle.*
Rive,	Rived,	Rived, riven.
Run,	Ran, run,	Run.
Say,	Said,	Said.
Saw,	Sawed,	Sawed, sawn.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Seethe,	Seethed,	Seethed, sodden.
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.
Send,	Sent,	Sent.
Set,	Set,	Set.
Shake,	Shook,	Shaken,
Shape,	Shaped,	Shaped, shapen.
Shave,	Shaved,	Shaved, shaven.
Shear,	Sheared,	Sheared, shorn.
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Shine,	Shone, shined,	Shone, shined.
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.
Show,	Showed,	Shown, showed.
Shred,	Shred,	Shred.
Shrink,	Shrunk, shrank,	Shrunk, shrunken.
Shut,	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sung, sang,	Sung.
Sink,	Sunk, sank,	Sunk.
Sit,	Sat,	Sat.
Slay,	Slew,	Slain.
Sleep,	Slept,	Slept.
Slide,	Slid,	Slid, slidden.
Sling,	Slung,	Slung.
Slink,	Slunk,	Slunk.
Slit,	Slit, slitted,	Slit, slitted.
Smell,	Smelled, smelt,	Smelled, smelt.
Smite,	Smote,	Smitten, smit.
Sow,	Sowed,	Sowed, sown.
Speak,	Spoke, spake,	Spoken,
Speed,	Sped, speeded,	Sped, speeded.
Spell,	Spelled, spelt,	Spelled, spelt.
Spend,	Spent,	Spent.

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perf. or Pass. Participle.*
Spill,	Spilled, spilt,	Spilled, spilt.
Spin.	Spun,	Spun.
Spit,	Spit, spat,	Spit.
Split,	Split, splitted,	Split, splitted.
Spoil,	Spoiled, spoilt,	Spoiled, spoilt.
Spread,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprung, sprang,	Sprung.
Stand,	Stood,	Stood.
Stave,	Staved, stove,	Staved, stove.
Stay,	Stayed, staid,	Stayed, staid.
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stink,	Stunk,	Stunk.
Strew,	Strewed,	Strewed, strewn.
Stride,	Strid, strode,	Strid, stridden.
Strike,	Struck,	Struck, stricken.
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strive,	Strove,	Striven.
Swear,	Swore,	Sworn.
Sweat,	Sweat, sweated,	Sweat, sweated.
Sweep,	Swept,	Swept.
Swell,	Swelled,	Swelled, swollen.
Swim,	Swam, swum,	Swum.
Swing,	Swung,	Swung.
Take.	Took,	Taken.
Teach,	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore,	Torn.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think,	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive,	Thrived, throve,	Thrived, thriven.
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.
Thrust,	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod, trode,	Trod, trodden.
Wax,	Waxed,	Waxed, waxen.
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove, weaved,	Woven, weaved.
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perf. or Pass. Participle.*
Wet,	Wet, wetted,	Wet, wetted.
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound,	Wound.
Work,	Worked, wrought,	Worked, wrought.
Wring,	Wrung,	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote,	Written.

We say "I have seen," "I had seen," and "I am seen," using the participle *seen* instead of *saw;* hence,

NOTE VI. We should use participles, only after *have* and *had*, and the verb *to be*.

Of regular verbs, the imperfect tense and perfect participle are alike; but of most irregular verbs, the imperfect tense and perfect participle are different. When this is the case, the imperfect tense should not be used associated with *have* or *had* or the verb *to be;* neither should the perfect participle be used instead of the imperfect tense.

In the following exercises you will find violations of NOTE VI. The errors are in italics. Correct them and then parse the sentences:

"John has *wrote*, a letter;" "He *done* it well." "The sun has *rose*." "I *seen* him yesterday." "He *done* his task." "The birds have *flew* away." "The sun *risen* yesterday in a cloud." "The book was *gave* to me." "The post was *drove* into the ground." "The task is *began*." "I had *went* with him." "My brother has not *spoke* to-day." "The thief has *stole* my watch." "His copy was *wrote* well." "He was *smote* on his cheek." "My father has *came*." "He *come* yesterday." "John has *awoke* by the noise." "Mary has *chose* the better part." "He *drunk* to excess." "His friends have *forsook* him." "He was not *forsook* by his children." "He was *took* and bound." "The cloth is *wove*." "John has *wrote* his copy."

GOVERNMENT OF THE INFINITIVE.

When I say, "John begins to read," *to read* is a verb in the infinitive mood; and it follows, as you perceive, the verb *begins;* hence we say that it is governed by *begins.*

"He is beginning to read." Here the infinitive follows the participle *beginning;* it is therefore governed by *beginning.*

"He is eager to learn." Here the infinitive follows the adjective *eager;* we therefore say that it is governed by *eager.*

"He has an opportunity to learn." Here the infinitive *to learn* is governed by the noun *opportunity.*

In like manner the infinitive may be governed by pronouns; as, "There is a fine opportunity for him to learn." Hence,

RULE XII.

The infinitive mood may be governed by verbs, participles, adjectives, nouns and pronouns.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"*James begins to learn.*"

To learn is a regular active transitive verb. *Pres.* learn; *Imperf.* learned; *Perf. Part.* learned; made in the *Infinitive mood, Present tense,* and governed by *begins,* according to RULE XII.

James and *begins* are parsed as before.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX CONTINUED.

"George desires to learn." "He is eager to learn." "He has a desire to study." "It seems to please John." "William has come to see us." "A knowledge of the rules of grammar teaches us to write correctly." "We may be taught to write, read and spell."

Ommission of TO *the usual sign of the infinitive.*

"John saw the man strike the boy." "The tutor bade him do it." "I heard the clock strike." "The soldiers dare not rebel."

You can now understand why the verb in the infinitive mood is a *noun*, and may be used in any capacity in which other nouns are used.

In connection with RULE XII we have:

NOTE VII. The infinitive mood is sometimes governed by *conjunctions* or *adverbs;* as, "The summit of a mountain so high *as* to be invisible."

EXAMPLES.

"They are about to depart." "He desired no more than to know his duty." "He is wise enough to study."

PARTICIPLES.

We have before seen that participles partake of the nature of two parts of speech, namely verbs and adjectives. One point of resemblance which participles have to adjectives is, in referring to some noun in the sentence in which they are used; as, "The sun is setting." Here the participle *setting* is said to refer to the noun *sun;* hence,

RULE XIII.—*Participles refer to nouns.*

All participles are compound in their meaning and office. Like verbs, they express *action* and *being*, and denote *time;* and, like adjectives, they describe the nouns of which they denote the action or being. In the sentences, "The boatman is *crossing* the river;" "I see a man *laboring* in the field;" "Charles is *standing*"—you perceive that the participles *crossing* and *laboring* express the actions of the boatman and the man, and *standing* the state of being of Charles. In these respects, then, they partake of the nature of verbs. You also notice that they *describe* the several nouns associated with them, like describing adjectives: and that in this

respect they participate the properties of adjectives. And, furthermore, you observe they denote actions which are still going on; that is, *incomplete* or *unfinished* actions; for which reason we call them *imperfect* participles.

Perhaps I can illustrate their character more clearly. When the present and perfect participles are placed before nouns, they become defining or describing adjectives, and are called *participial adjectives;* as, A *loving* companion; The *rippling* stream; *Roaring* winds; A *wilted* leaf; An *accomplished* scholar. Here the words *loving*, *rippling*, *roaring*, *wilted* and *accomplished*, describe or define the nouns with which they are associated. And where the participles are placed after their nouns, they have, also, this descriptive quality. If I say, I see the moon *rising;* The horse is *running* a race; The dog is *beaten;* I describe the several objects, as a *rising* moon, a *running* horse, and a *beaten* dog, as well as when I place these participles before the nouns. The same word is a participle or a participial adjective, according to its manner of meaning (that is, the manner in which it is used). The preceding illustration, however, shows that this distinction is founded on a very slight shade of difference in the meaning of the two. The following examples will enable you to distinguish the one from the other:

PARTICIPLES.	PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES.
"See the sun *setting.*"	"See the *setting* sun."
"See the moon *rising.*"	"See the *rising* moon."
"The wind is *roaring.*"	"Hear the *roaring* wind."
"The twig is *broken.*"	"The *broken* twig fell."
"The vessel *anchored* in the bay lost her mast."	"The *anchored* vessel spreads her sails."

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"*The wind is rising.*"

Rising is a *present active participle*, from the irregular verb *to rise*—pres. rise; imp. rose; perf. or pass. part. risen; and it refers to the noun *wind*, according to RULE XIII.

PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES.

"*The rising sun cheers us.*"

Rising is a *participial adjective*, from the verb *to rise;* pres. rise; imp. rose; perf. part. risen; and belongs to *sun*, according to RULE IV.

Participial adjectives are not compared.

RULE XIV.

Active participles, from active transitive verbs, govern the objective case.

REMARK.—Whether the active participle derived from an active transitive verb be used in forming a compound tense of a verb, or as a participial adjective, or as a noun, it always governs an objective case; because it always has the *extension* that the verb from which it is derived has—that is, it introduces an idea which it does not express, and requires some other word to express this idea and complete the sense. If you keep steadily in mind the true principles of government, all difficulties will vanish, and you can understand that, although the participle is governed by some other word, yet it retains its power of government.

The present participle when used as a noun, often has the definite article *the* before it, and the preposition *of* after it; as, "By *the* observing *of* truth, you will command respect." With equal propriety, however, it may be said, "By observing truth," &c., omitting both the article and the preposi-

tion. If we use the article without the preposition, or the preposition without the article, the expression will appear awkward; hence,

NOTE VIII. The definite article *the* should be used before, and the preposition *of* after participial nouns, or they should both be omitted.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"James is beating John."

John is a *proper noun; mas. gender, sing. number*, and *third person;* in the *objective case*, and governed by the active participle *beating*, according to RULE XIV.

"He delights in fighting."

Fighting is a *participial noun; neut. gender, sing. number*, and *third person;* in the *objective case*, and governed by the preposition *in*, according to RULE X.

"You will much oblige me by sending those books."

Sending, is a *participial noun*, &c., in the *objective case*, and governed by the preposition *by*, according to RULE X.

Books, is a *common noun; neut. gender, plur. number*, and *third person;* in the *objective case*, and governed by the active participle *sending*, according to RULE XIV.

The other words in the foregoing sentences are parsed as before.

CORRECT AND PARSE THE FOLLOWING:

"In writing of his letter he made some mistakes." "In the regarding his interests, he neglected the public affairs." "Keeping of one day in seven is required of Christians." "By the observing these rules, he will avoid mistakes."

THE AUXILIARY VERBS.

As before stated, the verbs *have*, *be*, *will* and *do*, when they are unconnected with a principal verb, expressed or

understood, are not auxiliaries, but principal verbs; as, "We *have* enough;" "I *am* grateful;" "He wills it *to be* so;" "They *do* as they please." "In this view, they also have their auxiliaries; as, "I *shall have* enough; "I *will be* grateful," &c.

The peculiar force of the several auxiliaries will appear from the following account of them:

Do and *did* mark the action itself, or the time of it, with greater energy and positiveness; as, "I *do* speak truth;" "I *did* respect him;" "Here am I, for thou *didst* call me." They are of great use in negative sentences; as, "I *do* not fear; "I *did* not write." They are almost universally employed in asking questions which may be answered by *yes* or *no;* as "*Does* he learn?" "*Did* he not write?" They sometimes also supply the place of another verb, and make the repetition of it, in the same or a subsequent sentence, unnecessary; as, "You attend not to your studies as he *does;*" (i. e. "as he attends," &c.) "I shall come, if I can; but if I *do not*, please to excuse me;" (i. e. "if I come not.")

May and *might* express the possibility or liberty of doing a thing; *can* and *could*, the power; as, "It *may* rain;" "I *may* write or read;" "He *might* have improved more than he has;" "He *can* write much better than he *could* last year."

Must is sometimes called in for a helper, and denotes necessity; as, "We *must* speak the truth, whenever we do speak, and we *must* not prevaricate."

Will, in the first person singular and plural, intimates resolution and promising; in the second and third persons it only foretells; as, "I *will* reward the good, and *will* punish the wicked;" "We *will* remember benefits, and be grateful;" "Thou *wilt*, or he *will*, repent of that folly;" "You, or they, *will* have a pleasant walk."

Shall, on the contrary, in the first person, simply foretells; in the second and third persons, it promises, commands, or threatens; as, "I *shall* go abroad;" "We *shall* dine at home;" "Thou *shalt*, or you *shall*, inherit the land;" "Ye *shall* do justice, and love mercy;" "They *shall* account for their misconduct." The following passage is not translated according to the distinct and proper meanings of the words *shall* and *will:* "Surely goodness and mercy *shall* follow me all the days of my life; and I *will* dwell in the house of the Lord forever." It ought to be, "*will* follow me," and "I *shall* dwell." The foreigner who, as it is said, fell into the Thames, and cried out, "I *will* be drowned! Nobody *shall* help me!" made a sad misapplication of these auxiliaries.

These observations respecting the import of the verbs *will* and *shall* must be understood of explicative sentences; for when the sentence is interrogative, just the reverse, for the most part, takes place; thus "I *shall* go," "you *will* go," express event only; but "*Will* you go?" imports intention; and "*Shall* I go?" refers to the will of another. "But, "He *shall* go," and, "*Shall* he go?" both imply will; expressing or referring to a command.

When the verb is put in the subjunctive mood, the meaning of these auxiliaries, likewise, undergoes some alteration, as the learners will readily perceive by a few examples: "He *shall* proceed;" "If he *shall* proceed;" "You *shall* consent; "If you *shall* consent." These auxiliaries are sometimes interchanged in the indicative and subjunctive moods, to convey the same meaning of the auxiliary; as, "He *will* not return;" "If he *shall* not return;" He *shall* not return;" "If he *will* not return."

Would primarily denotes inclination of will; and *should*, obligation; but they both vary their import, and are often used to express simple event.

Do and *have* are sometimes used as principal verbs, according to the following:

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres.	I do.	I have.
Imp.	I did.	I had.
Perf.	I have done.	I have had.
Plup.	I had done.	I had had.
1. Fut.	I shall *or* will do.	I shall *or* will have.
2. Fut.	I shall have done.	I shall have had.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Pres.	I may *or* can do.	I may *or* can have.
Imp.	I might, could, would, *or* should do.	I might, could, would, *or* should have.
Perf.	I may *or* can have done.	I may *or* can have had.
Plup.	I might, could, would, *or* should have done.	I might, could, would, *or* should have had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Pres.	If I do.	If I have, &c.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres.	Do you *or* Do you do.	Have you *or* Do you have.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres.	To do.	To have.
Perf.	To have done.	To have had.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	Doing.	Having.
Perf.	Done.	Had.
Comp. Perf.	Having done.	Having had.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Q.—What are defective verbs?

A.—Defective verbs are those which are used only in some of the moods and tenses. The following are the principal ones:

Present Tense.	*Imperfect Tense.*	*Perf. Participle.*
May,	Might,	(wanting.)
Can,	Could,	(wanting.)
Will,	Would,	(wanting.)
Shall,	Should,	(wanting.)
Must,	Must,	(wanting.)
Ought,	Ought,	(wanting.)
———	Quoth,	———

Of these, *ought* and *must*, you perceive, are not varied.

Q.—How are *ought* and *quoth* always used, and how are their tenses determined?

A.—*Ought* and *quoth* are always used as principal verbs. *Ought* is the same in the imperfect tense, as in the present, and is always followed by an infinitive; as, "He *ought* to study;" "He *ought* to have read." In this last example, *ought* is in the imperfect; and in the first, it is in the present. This we determine by the infinitive, which follows the verb, thus: When the present infinitive follows *ought*, *ought* is in the present tense; but when the perfect infinitive follows it, it is in the imperfect tense.

Q.—Are verbs ever used in a transitive and in an intransitive and neuter manner?

A.—In English, verbs are often used both in a transitive and an intransitive, or neuter signification. Thus, *to spread* is an active transitive verb in the sentence, "He spread the report through the town;" but it is intransitive in the sentence, "The report spread through the town."

Q.—How may neuter verbs become compound active transitive verbs?

A.—A neuter or intransitive verb, by the addition of a preposition, may become a compound active transitive verb; as, *to smile* is intransitive; it cannot, therefore, be followed by an objective case, nor be changed into the passive form. We cannot say, "She smiled him," or, "He was smiled;" but we say, very properly, "She smiled on him." "He was smiled on by her."

Q.—How do prepositions affect the meaning of verbs?

A.—Prepositions affect the meaning of verbs in different ways. *To cast* means *to throw;* as, "He *cast* a stone at her." *To cast up*, however, means *to compute;* as, "He *casts up* his accounts." In all instances in which the preposition follows the verb, and modifies its meaning, it should be considered a part of the verb, and be so treated in parsing.

Q.—What class of verbs which indicate no action, admit an objective case after them?

A.—As before stated, there are some verbs, which, although they admit an objective case after them, still do not indicate the least degree of action; as, "I resemble my father." This seeming inconsistency may be easily reconciled by reflecting that, in all such cases, the verb has a direct reference to its object. Of this nature are the verbs *retain*, *resemble*, *own*, *have*, &c.

Q.—Do any neuter or intransitive verbs admit a passive form?

A.—Some neuter or intransitive verbs admit of a passive form, and are thence called neuter passive verbs; as, "John *goes* home to-night." Here, *goes* is an intransitive verb. But in the sentence, "John *is gone* home," *is gone* is a neuter passive verb. Again, in the phrase, "William *comes*," *comes* is an intransitive verb; and in the phrase, "William *is come*," *is come* is a neuter passive verb.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"William had many advantages before he improved them in a proper manner." "He has had many precious opportunities." "John will do as his instructor directs." "A good scholar will not do what is forbidden by his instructor." "He may have had time." "I own this book." "I cannot believe him." "Charles resembles his parents." "His father does not hesitate to trust him." "He retains his place." "The farmer casts seed into the ground." "She smiles sweetly." "She smiled on John." "The merchant casts up his accounts often." "John was smiled on by fortune in every undertaking." "Mary was gone before her mother came." "The instructor has come." "Our instructor has come." "Susan has gone." "John has gone to visit his parents." "William is come home from Paris."

ADVERBS.

Q.—What are adverbs?

A.—Adverbs are words joined to verbs, participles, adjectives and other adverbs, to qualify them; as, "John speaks *distinctly;*" "He is writing *rapidly;*" "He is *remarkably* diligent;" and "He reads *very* correctly."

Q.—What does *to modify* or *qualify* mean?

A.—To *modify* or *qualify*, means to produce some change. The adverb modifies or qualifies. If I say "Wirt's style *excels* Irving's," the proposition is affirmative, and the verb *excels* expresses the affirmation. But when I say "Wirt's style *excels not* Irving's," the assertion is changed to a negative. What is it that thus qualifies or changes the meaning of the verb *excels?* You perceive that it is the little word *not.* This word has power to reverse the meaning of the sentence. *Not*, then, is a modifier, qualifier or negative adverb.

Q.—How do adverbs generally modify verbs and participles?

A.—When an adverb is used to modify the sense of a verb or participle, it generally expresses the *manner*, *time* or *place*, in which the action is performed, or some accidental circumstance respecting it. In the phrases, "The man rides *gracefully*, *awkwardly*, *badly*, *swiftly*, *slowly*," &c.; or, "I saw the man riding *swiftly*, *slowly*, *leisurely*, *very fast*," &c., you perceive that the words *gracefully*, *awkwardly*, *very fast*, &c., are adverbs, qualifying the verb *rides*, or the participle *riding*, because they express the *manner* in which the action denoted by the verb and participle is done.

In the phrases, "The man rides *daily*, *weekly*, *seldom*, *frequently*, *often*, *sometimes*, *never;*" or, "The man rode *yesterday*, *heretofore*, *long since*, *long ago*, *recently*, *lately*, *just now;*" or, "The man will ride *soon*, *presently*, *directly*, *by and by*, *to-day*, *hereafter*," you perceive that all these words in *italics* are adverbs qualifying the meaning of the verb *rides;* because they express the time of the action denoted by the verb.

Again, if I say, "The man lives *here*, *near by*, *yonder*, *remote*, *far off*, *somewhere*, *nowhere*, *everywhere*," &c., the words in *italics* are adverbs of *place*, because they tell where he lives.

Q.—How do adverbs qualify adjectives and other adverbs?

A.—Adverbs likewise qualify *adjectives*, and sometimes other *adverbs;* as, *more* wise, *most* wise; or, *more wisely*, *most wisely*. When an adverb is joined to an adjective or adverb, it generally expresses the *degree* of comparison; for adverbs, like adjectives, have degrees of comparison. Thus, in the phrase, "A *skillful* artist," you know the ad-

jective *skillful* is in the positive degree; but, by placing the adverb *more* before the adjective, we increase the degree of quality denoted by the adjective to the comparative; as, "A *more* skillful artist;" and *most* renders it superlative, as, "A *most* skillful artist;" and if we place *more* and *most* before other adverbs, the effect is the same; as, skillfully, *more* skillfully, *most* skillfully.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

Positive.	*Comparative.*	*Superlative.*
Soon,	Sooner,	Soonest.
Often,	Oftener,	Oftenest.
Much,	More,	Most.
Well,	Better,	Best.
Far,	Farther,	Farthest.
Wisely,	More wisely,	Most wisely.
Justly,	More justly,	Most justly.
Justly,	Less justly,	Least justly.
Badly, or ill,	Worse,	Worst.

Q.—How may adverbs be generally known?

A.—You will generally know an adverb at sight, but sometimes you will find it more difficult to be distinguished than any other part of speech in the English language. I will, therefore, give you some *signs* which will assist you.

Most words ending in *ly* are adverbs; such as *politely*, *gracefully*, *judiciously*, &c. Any word or short phrase that will answer to any one of the questions, *How? How much? When?* or *Where?* is an adverb; as, "The river flows *rapidly;*" "He walks *very fast;*" "He has gone *far away*, but he will soon return;" "She sings *sweetly;*" "They learn *none at all.*" How, or in what manner, does the river flow? *Rapidly.* How does he walk? *Very fast.* Where has he gone? *Far away.* When will he return? *Soon.* How does she sing? *Sweetly.* How much do they learn? *None at all.* From this illustration you will perceive that, if you

could not tell these adverbs by the sense, you would know them by their answering to the questions. However, your better way will be to distinguish adverbs by considering the office they perform in the sentence; or by noticing their grammatical relation, or their situation, with respect to other words. If any qualifying word is again modified, or qualified, this additional modification or qualification must be made by an adverb. *Rapidly*, *fast*, *soon*, *far away*, *sweetly*, &c., are known to be adverbs by their qualifying the sense of verbs. "A *very* good pen writes *extremely* well." *Well*, in this sentence, is known to be an adverb by its qualifying the sense of the verb *writes; extremely*, by its ending in *ly*, or by its being joined to the adverb *well* to qualify it; and *very* is known as an adverb by its joining and qualifying the adjective *good*.

Q.—How many classes of adverbs are there?

A.—Adverbs, though very numerous, may, for the sake of practical convenience, be reduced to eleven particular classes:

1. *Of Number*—As, once, twice, thrice, &c.

2. *Of Order*—As, first, secondly, thirdly, lastly, finally, &c.

3. *Of Place*—As, here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, whither, hither, thither, upward, downward, forward, backward, whence, hence, thence, whithersoever, &c.

4. *Of Time*—Of *time present;* as, now, to-day, &c.

Of *time past;* as, already, before, lately, yesterday, heretofore, hitherto, long since, long ago, &c.

Of *time to come;* as, to-morrow, not yet, hereafter, henceforth, henceforward, by and by, instantly, presently, immediately, ere long, straightways, &c.

Of *time indefinite;* as, oft, often, oft-times, often-times, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, always, when, then, ever, never, again, &c.

5. *Of Quantity*—As, much, little, sufficiently, how much, how great, enough, abundantly, &c.

6. *Of Manner* or *Quality*—As, wisely, foolishly, justly, unjustly, quickly, slowly, &c. Adverbs of quality are the most numerous kind, and they are generally formed by adding the termination *ly* to an adjective or participle, or by changing *le* into *ly;* as, bad, badly; cheerful, cheerfully; able, ably; admirable, admirably.

7. *Of Doubt*—As, haply, perhaps, peradventure, possibly, &c.

8. *Of Affirmation*—As, verily, truly, undoubtedly, doubtless, yea, certainly, yes, surely, indeed, really, &c.

9. *Of Negation*—As, nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, in no wise, &c.

10. *Of Interrogation*—As, how, why, wherefore, whither, whether, &c., and sometimes when, whence, where, &c.

11. *Of comparison*—As, more, most, better, best, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, little, alike, &c.

Q.—What are adverdial phrases?

A.—Expressions like these: *none at all*, *a great deal*, *a few days ago*, *long since*, *at length*, *in vain*, &c., when they are used to denote the *manner* or *time* of the actions of verbs or participles, are generally called adverbial phrases.

Most adverbs express in one word what would otherwise require two or more words; as, "He did it *here*," for "He did it *in this place; there*, for *in that place; where*, for *in what place; now*, for *at this time. Why* means *for what reason; how*, in *what mind*, *mood*, *mode* or *manner; exceedingly, to a great degree*; *very*, *in an eminent degree. Often* and *seldom* signify *many times*, *few times*,

For a full explanation of adverbs see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 132, &c.

RULE IX.

Adverbs qualify verbs, participles, adjectives and other adverbs.

EXERCISES IN SYNTX.

In vain we look for perfect hapiness.

In vain is an adverbial phrase, and qualifies *look*, according to RULE IX.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX CONTINUED.

"John has come again, but William has not." "Very many persons fail of happiness." A vast many evils are incident to man in his wearisome journey through life." "The instructress has at length arrived." "William acted very nobly." "I will by no means consent." "He wrote a long letter a few days ago." "John was writing carelessly." "I have admonished her once and again." "A few days ago, there was much excitement in town."

You remember that *adjectives* qualify as well as adverbs; hence,

NOTE IX. To qualify verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs, we should use adverbs; but to qualify nouns, we should use adjectives.

SENTENCES TO BE CORRECTED AND PARSED.

"William writes good." "Susan studies diligent." "He speaks fluently and reasons correct." "John writes tolerable well, but reads miserable." "Harriet dresses neat." "On conditions suitably to his rank." "He speaks very correct." "Mary sings admirable." "He writes elegant." "He reads and spells very bad."

PREPOSITIONS.

Q.—What are prepositions?

A.—Prepositions are words used to connect words together, and thereby show the relation between them; as, "He went *from* London *to* York;" "She is *above* disguise;" "They are supported *by* industry."

The following is a list of the principal prepositions:

Aboard.	Behind.	From.	Throughout.
About.	Below.	In, into.	Till.
Above.	Beneath.	Notwithstand'g	To.
According to.	Beside, besides.	Of.	Touching.
Across.	Between.	Off.	Toward, towards
After.	Betwixt.	On.	Under.
Against.	Beyond.	Out of.	Underneath.
Along.	By.	Over.	Until.
Amid, amidst.	Concerning.	Past.	Unto.
Among, am'gst.	Down.	Regarding.	Up.
Around.	During	Respecting.	Upon.
At.	Except.	Round.	With.
Athwart.	Excepting.	Since.	Within.
Before.	For.	Through.	Without.

Q.—How are some compound verbs formed?

A.—We frequently meet with verbs compounded of a preposition and verb, as, "to *up*hold," to "*in*vest," "to *over*look;" and this composition gives a new sense to the verb, as, "to *under*stand," to *with*draw." But the preposition more frequently occurs *after* the verb, and separate from it, as, "to cast *up*," "to fall *on*." The sense of the verb in this case is also materially affected by the preposition.

Q.—Are prepositions ever used as adverbs?

A.—The prepositions *after*, *before*, *above*, *beneath* and several others, sometimes appear to be adverbs, and may be so considered; as, "They had their reward soon *after?*"

"He died not long *before?*" "He dwells *above?*" but if the noun *time* or *place* be added, they lose their adverbial form; as, "He died not long before" [that *time*,] &c.

Q.—What distinction between prepositions and conjunctions as connecting words?

A.—Prepositions and conjunctions are intimately related, both being connecting words. But conjunctions connect things of the same kind, and connect them as equals—an adjective with an adjective, a noun with a noun, a verb with a verb, a sentence with a sentence, &c. A preposition connects differently. It ties on, as it were, one word to another, as a sort of addition. Moreover, the word thus tied on by a preposition is always either a noun or a pronoun, while almost any part of speech may follow a conjunction. The preposition also connects the noun following it, not only to another noun, but to other parts of speech, as, a verb, an adjective, &c. Examples:

"I write *with* a pen." *With* connects *pen* (a noun) with *write* (a verb). It connects the act with the instrument, and shows the relation between them.

"The man *in* the next room." *In* connects *room* with *man*, and shows a relation between the two.

"Taller *by* an inch." *By* connects its dependent noun *inch* with *taller* (an adjective).

"Dying *of* fever." *Of* connects *fever* (its object) with *dying* (its subject) which is a participle, and shows the relation between them.

The subject of a preposition is the word which gives it a place in the sentence; it is also called its antecedent.

RULE X.

Prepositions govern the objective case.

DEMONSTRATION.

This rule is based upon the true principles of government. But there appears to be one principle connected with the preposition which is not generally understood; and that is, that the preposition, and its object, with its descriptive words, become an adjunct, or complex complement of its subject, and are either governed by it or descriptive of it. Thus, in the sentence, "He lives *in* the greatest seclusion," *in* connects *seclusion* (its object) with *lives* (its subject), and shows the relation between them; and the phrase, "*in the greatest seclusion*," is an adjunct to *lives;* and is the complex complement of it; and is an adverbial phrase qualifying *lives.* The true use of the preposition is to bring words to coalesce, which refuse of themselves to coalesce; it is, therefore, the connecting link between its subject and object, and, according to the true principles of government, it and its object are governed by its subject, or they are descriptive of it; because, when one word governs another, the governing word governs the governed word with all of its adjuncts.

You are aware that a preposition performs a *double* office in a sentence; that is, it *connects* words and shows the *relation* between them. I will now show you the use and importance of this part of speech as a connective. "When corn is ripe,—October, it is gathered—the field—men, who go—hill—hill—baskets,—which they put the ears." You perceive that in this sentence there is a total want of connection and meaning; but let us fill up each vacancy with a preposition, and the sense will be clear. "When corn is ripe, *in* October, it is gathered *in* the field *by* men, who go *from* hill *to* hill *with* baskets, *into* which they put the ears."

From this illustration you are convinced, no doubt, that our language would be very deficient without prepositions to

connect the various words of which it is composed. It would, in fact, amount to nothing but nonsense. How important, therefore, that we should clearly understand this indispensable part of speech.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

John lives within his income.

Within is a PREPOSITION, and connects *income* and *lives*, and shows the relation between them.

Income is a COMMON NOUN, *neuter* GENDER, *singular* NUMBER and THIRD PERSON, in the OBJECTIVE CASE, the object of the preposition *within*, and governed by it according to RULE X. [Repeat the rule.]

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX CONTINUED.

"Thomas made his fortune by industry." "Susan labors with her needle for a livelihood." "Respecting that affair, there was a controversy." "In six days God made the world and all the things that are in it. He made the sun to shine by day, and the moon to give light by night."

Will you fill up the following sentences with suitable prepositions to make sense: "John was——the house when he was seized——a fit." "The busy bee——summer provides food——the approaching winter——the prudence——a rational being."

CONJUNCTIONS.

Q.—What is a conjunction?

A.—A conjunction is a word used to connect words and sentences together; as, "King *and* Queen." "Life is short *and* art is long."

The nature and importance of the conjunction are easily illustrated. After expressing one thought or sentiment, you know we frequently wish to *add* another, or several

others, which are closely connected with it. We generally effect this addition by means of the conjunction; thus, "The Georgians cultivate rice *and* cotton;" that is, "They cultivate rice *add* cotton." This sentence is compound, and without the use of the conjunction, it would be written in two simple sentences; thus, "The Georgians cultivate rice. They cultivate cotton." The conjunction, though chiefly used to connect sentences, sometimes connects only words, in which capacity it is nearly allied to the preposition; as, "The sun and (*add*) the planets constitute the solar system." In this, which is a simple sentence, *and* connects two *words*.

A few more examples will illustrate the nature, and exhibit the use of this part of speech so clearly as to enable you fully to comprehend it. The following sentences and members of sentences, have no relation to each other until they are connected by conjunctions: "He labors harder—— more successfully —— I do. That man is healthy —— he is temperate." By filling up the vacancies in these sentences with conjunctions, you will see the importance of this sort of words; thus, "He labors harder *and* more successfully *than* I do." "That man is healthy *because* he is temperate."

Q.—How are conjunctions divided?

A.—*Conjunctions* are divided into two sorts: the *Copulative* and *Disjunctive*.

I. The conjunction *copulative* serves to connect and continue a sentence by joining on a member which expresses an addition, a supposition, or a cause; as, "Two *and* three are five;" "I will go *if* you will accompany me;" "You are happy *because* you are good."

In the first of these examples, *and* joins on a word that expresses an *addition;* in the second, *if* connects a member

that implies a supposition, or condition; and in the third, *because* connects a member that expresses a cause.

II. The conjunction *disjunctive* serves to connect and continue a sentence by joining on a member that expresses opposition of meaning; as, "They came with her, *but* they went away without her."

But joins on a member of this sentence which expresses not only something added, but also *opposition* of meaning.

The principal conjunctions may be known by the following *lists*, which I hope you have already committed to memory. Some words in these lists, are, however, frequently used as adverbs, and sometimes as prepositions; but if you study well the nature of all the different sorts of words, you cannot be at a loss to tell the part of speech of any word in the language.

LIST OF THE CONJUNCTIONS.

Copulative. And, if, that, both, then, since, for, because, therefore, wherefore, provided, besides.

Disjunctive. But, or, nor, as, than, lest, through, although, unless, either, neither, yet, notwithstanding, nevertheless, except, whether, whereas, as well as.

Q.—What conjunctions have correspondent conjunctions?

A.—Some conjunctions have correspondent conjunctions belonging to them, either expressed or understood, so that in the subsequent member of the sentence the latter answers to the former; as,

1. *Though—yet* or *nevertheless;* as "Though he was rich, *yet* for our sakes he became poor; *though* powerful, he was meek."

2. *Whether—or*; as, "*Whether* he will go, *or* not, I cannot tell." It is improper to say, "Whether he will go or *no*."

3. *Either—or;* as, "I will *either* send it, *or* bring it myself."

4. *Neither—nor;* as, "*Neither* thou *nor* I can comprehend."

5. *As—as;* expressing a comparison of equality; as, "She is *as* amiable *as* her sister, and *as* much respected."

6. *As—so;* expressing a comparison of equality; as, "*As* the stars, *so* shall thy seed be."

7. *As—so;* expressing a comparison of quality; as, "*As* the one dieth, *so* dieth the other;" "*As* he reads, *so* they read."

8. *So—as;* with a verb expressing a comparison of quality; as, "To see thy glory, *so as* I have seen thee in the sanctuary."

9. *So—as;* with a negative and an adjective expressing a comparison of quantity; as, "Pompey was not *so* great a general *as* Cæsar, nor *as* great a man."

10. *So—that;* expressing a consequence; as, "He was *so* fatigued, *that* he could scarcely move;" "She became *so* vain, *that* every one disliked her."

Some conjunctions are used to connect simple *sentences* only, and form them into compound *sentences;* such as, *further*, *again*, *besides*, &c. Others are employed to connect simple *members* only, so as to make them compound *members;* such as, *than*, *lest*, *unless*, *that*, *so that*, *if*, *though*, *yet*, *because*, &c. But, and, therefore, or, nor, for, &c., connect either whole sentences, or simple members.

Q.—What other words besides conjunctions connect sentences?

A.—Relative pronouns, as well as conjunctions connect sentences; as, "Blessed is the man *who* feareth the Lord, *and* keepeth his commandments."

Conjunctions very often unite sentences when they appear to unite only words, as in the following sentences: "Duty and interest forbid vicious indulgences." "Wisdom

or folly governs us." Each of these forms of expression contains two sentences, namely; the first, "Duty forbids vicious indulgences;" "Interest forbids vicious indulgences;" the second, "Wisdom governs us;" or, "Folly governs us."

RULE XI.

Conjunctions usually connect verbs of the same mood and tense, and nouns and pronouns of the same case.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"John assists his father and mother."

And is a CONJUNCTION, a word used to connect words and sentences; COPULATIVE—it connects *father* and *mother*, in the same case, according to RULE XI. (Repeat the rule.)

Mother is a NOUN—it is a name; common—it is a general name; feminine gender—it is the name of a female; singular number—it means but one; third person—it is spoken of; and it is one of the objects of assists, and governed by it, according to RULE VIII. (Repeat the rule.)

"William writes and ciphers."

And is a CONJUNCTION, a word used to connect words and sentences; copulative—it connects *writes* and *ciphers*, in the same mood and tense, according to RULE XI. (Repeat the rule.)

Ciphers is a REGULAR ACTIVE INTRANSITIVE VERB, from the verb *to cipher*. *Present*, cipher; *imperfect*, ciphered; *perfect participle*, ciphered. 1st. per. I cipher; 2nd. per. You cipher; 3rd. per. He or William ciphers; made in the indicative mood, present tense, singular number and third person, and agrees with its nominative, William (*understood*), according to RULE VII, and is connected to *writes* by the conjunction and, according to RULE XI.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX CONTINUED.

"You may read this sentence first and then parse it." "John rises early in the morning and pursues his studies." "Though he is lively, yet he is not too volatile." "If we contend about trifles and violently maintain our opinions, we shall gain but few friends." "I will reward him and them at some future time." "Reproof either hardens or softens its object." "John ciphers rapidly and reads correctly." "If he has promised he should act accordingly." "He denied that he circulated the report."

SENTENCES TO BE WRITTEN.

Will you compose a sentence containing the conjunction *if?* One containing *and?* As many sentences as there are conjunctions which follow, each sentence containing one? *Although*, *unless*, *for*, *because*, *therefore*, *or*, *neither*, *nor*.

Will you compose a sentence about *Jackson?* One about *Madison?* One about *Monroe?* One about *Webster?* One about *Clay?* One about *Washington?*

INTERJECTIONS.

Q.—What are interjections?

A.—Interjections are words thrown in between the parts of sentences, to express the passions or sudden feelings of the speaker; as, "Alas! I fear for life;" "Oh, death! where is thy sting?"

Interjections are not so much the signs of thought as of feeling. Almost any word may be used as an interjection; but when so employed, it is not the representative of a *distinct* idea. A word which denotes a distinct conception of the mind, must necessarily belong to some other part of speech. They who wish to speak often, or rather, to make *noises*, when they have no useful information to communi-

cate, are apt to use words very freely in this way, such as the following expressions: *La! La me! My! O my! O dear! Dear me! Surprising! Astonishing!* and the like.

Interjections not included in the following list, are generally known by their taking an exclamation point after them.

A list of the principal interjections:

1. *Of earnestness* or *grief;* as, O! oh! ah! alas!
2. *Of contempt;* as, pish! tush!
3. *Of wonder;* as, heigh! really! strange!
4. *Of calling;* as, hem! ho! halloo!
5. *Of disgust* or *aversion;* as, foh! fy! fudge! away!
6. *Of attention;* as, lo! behold! hark!
7. *Of requesting silence;* as, hush! hist!
8. *Of salutation;* as, welcome? hail! all hail!

We frequently meet with what some call an *interjective* phrase; such as, "Ungrateful wretch!" "Impudence of hope!" "Folly in the extreme!" "What ingratitude!" "Away with him!"

We do not say, "Ah, I!" "Oh, I!" but "Ah, me!" "Oh, me!" using the objective case after the interjection. The pronoun here spoken of, you perceive, is of the first person; hence,

NOTE 10. Pronouns of the first person are put in the objective case, after the interjections O! oh! ah! &c.

We say, "O thou persecutor!" "Oh ye hypocrites!" "O thou who dwellest!" &c. Hence,

NOTE 11. The interjections O! oh! and ah! require the nominative case of pronouns in the second person, after them.

As the interjection is the least important part of speech in the English language, it will require but little attention. You may, however, make yourself well acquainted with

what has been said respecting it, and then parse the following:

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"Ah, me! I must perish!"

Ah is an INTERJECTION, a word used to express some passion or emotion of the speaker.

Me is a PERSONAL PRONOUN, of the first person, singular, objective case, following the interjection *ah*, according to NOTE 10.

"O, thou who hearest prayer!"

Thou is a PERSONAL PRONOUN, of the second person, singular, and in the nominative case, after the interjection *O*, according to NOTE 11.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX CONTINUED.

"O, thou! Who hast murdered thy friend!" "Ah, me! must I endure all this?" "Oh! I must go and see my dear father before he dies." "Oh! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings." "Ah! unhappy thou, who art deaf to the calls of duty and honor." "We eagerly pursue pleasure, but alas! we often mistake the road to its enjoyment."

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

Q.—What are nouns in apposition?

A.—APPOSITION, in grammar, signifies the putting of two nouns in the same case.

"By apposition nouns in case agree,
Though different in person they may be."

When I say, "John, the mechanic, has come," I am speaking of only one person; the two nouns, *John* and *mechanic*, both meaning or referring to the same person; consequently they are put, by apposition, in the same case; hence,

RULE XV.

When two or more nouns or pronouns, in the same sentence, signify the same person or thing, they are put, by apposition, in the same case; as, "*Cicero*, the great *orator*, *philosopher*, and *statesman* of Rome, was murdered by Antony."

You perceive that *Cicero*, in the preceding example, is merely the proper name of a man; but when I give him the three additional appellations, and call him a great *orator*, *philosopher* and *statesman*, you understand what kind of a man he was; that is, by giving him these three additional names, his character and abilities as a man are more fully made known. Surely, you cannot be at a loss to know that these four nouns must be in the same case, for they are all names given to the same person; therefore, if *Cicero* was murdered, the *orator* was murdered, and the *philosopher* was murdered, and the *statesman* was murdered, because they all mean one and the same person.

Nouns and pronouns, in the objective case, are frequently in *apposition;* as, "He struck *Charles*, the *student.*" Now, it is obvious that, when he struck *Charles*, he struck the *student*, because *Charles* was the *student*, and the *student* was *Charles;* therefore, the noun *student* is in the objective case, governed by *struck;* according to RULE VIII, and put, by apposition, with Charles, according to RULE XV.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"Webster, the statesman, has left us."

Statesman is a common noun, masculine gender, singular number, and third person; in the nominative case, and put in apposition with *Webster*, according to RULE XV.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX CONTINUED.

"David, the thief, was apprehended." "Johnson, the bookseller, has failed in business." "I consulted Williams, the lawyer." "I visit Thompson, the professor, often."

REMARK. When one noun describes or qualifies another, the one so qualifying becomes an adjective in sense, and may be so considered in parsing. Accordingly, *Belmont*, in the phrase "*Belmont House*," is an adjective belonging to *house*, according to RULE IV.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX CONTINUED.

"The Marlborough Hotel is situated in Washington street." "The firm of Messrs. Williams & Sons has failed." "John Dobson, the butcher, was in town yesterday." "John Johnson, the baker, has broken his leg."

REMARK 2. When the nouns which refer to the same person or thing are separated by verbs, as, "Webster is a statesman," it is customary to apply one or more of the following rules:

1. Any verb may have the same case after it as before it, when both words refer to the same thing.

2. The verb *to be*, through all its variations, has the same case after it as that which next precedes it.

3. Passive verbs of naming, judging, &c., have the same case after them as before them.

4. Neuter verbs have the same case after them as before them.

REMARK.—For a full explanation of the true nature of nouns in apposition, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 145, &c.

NOUNS USED INDEPENDENTLY.

Q.—When are nouns said to be in the nominative case independent?

A.—To address signifies to speak to; as, "James, your father has come." The name of the person addressed must always be of the second person; and a noun in this situation, when it has no verb to agree with it, and is wholly disconnected with the rest of the sentence, is said to be in the nominative case independent. Hence,

RULE XVI.

When an address is made, the name of the person or thing addressed is in the nominative case independent.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"John, will you assist me?"

John is a PROPER NOUN, masculine gender, singular number, and third person, and nominative case independent, according to RULE XVI. (Repeat the rule.)

The nominative case independent is also used in mere exclamations; as, "O, the times! O, the manners!" also, when the attention is directed to an object before an affirmation is made of it; as, "The Pilgrim *fathers*, where are they?"

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX CONTINUED.

"My lords, the time has come when we must take some decisive measures." "Boys, attend to your lessons." "In making this appeal to you, my fellow citizens, I rely entirely on your candor." "Did you speak to me, girls?"

"Those evening bells, those evening bells!
How many a tale their music tells,
Of youth and home, and that sweet time
When last I heard their soothing chime."—T. Moore.

"The warlike of the isles;
The men of field and wave!
Are not the rocks their funeral pile,
The seas and shores their grave?"—Hemans.

NOUNS IN THE CASE ABSOLUTE.

Q.—When is a noun in the nominative case absolute?

A.—In the phrase, "The sun being risen, we set sail," the clause of the sentence, namely, "The sun being risen," has nothing to do with the remainder; the noun and participle may, therefore, when taken together, be said to be in the nominative case independent; but, as we have already one case of this nature, we will, for the sake of making a distinction, call this (the noun joined with a participle) the nominative case absolute. Hence,

RULE XVII.

A noun or pronoun before a participle, and independent of the rest of the sentence, is in the nominative case absolute; as, "*Shame* being lost, all virtue is lost;" that is, *when shame is lost.*

Being and *having been* are sometimes omitted when the nominative is absolute; as,

"Her *wheel* at rest, the matron thrills no more
With treasured tales of legendary lore."—Rogers.

"He destroyed,
Or *won,* to what may work his utter loss;
All this will follow soon."

Being is omitted after *wheel*, and *having been* before *destroyed* and *won.*

The objective case should not be used for the nominative absolute. Thus, we should say, *he destroyed;* not *him destroyed.*

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"The sun being risen, we departed." "The soldiers retreating, victory was lost." "Egypt being conquered, Alexander returned to Syria." "Wellington having returned to England, tranquility was restored to France." "Bona-

parte being conquered, the king was restored." "The conditions being observed, the bargain was a mutual benefit."

SENTENCES TO BE CORRECTED AND PARSED.

"Him only excepted, who was a murderer." "Him being destroyed, the remaining robbers made their escape." "Her being dismissed, the rest of the scholars behaved well." "But them being absent, we cannot come to a determination."

THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

NOTE 12. A verb in the infinitive mood is sometimes placed independently; as, "*To be frank*, I own I have injured you.

NOTE 13. The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is frequently put as the nominative case to a verb of the third person singular; as, "*To play* is pleasant;" "*Thou shalt not kill*, is required of all men."

REMARK.—The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is frequently the object of a transitive verb; as, "Boys love *to play;* "Children do not consider *how much has been done for them* by their parents." (See RULE XII.)

NOTE 14. The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, may have an adjective or participle agreeing with it, when there is no noun, either expressed or understood, to which the adjective may belong; as, "To see the sun is pleasant;" "Defraud not thy neighbor is binding on all."

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"To be frank, I own I have injured you."

To be frank is a verb, in the infinitive mood, present tense, singular number, and nominative case independent, according to Note 12.

"Thou shalt not kill, is required of all men."

Thou shalt not kill is a part of a sentence, and is nominative case to *is required*, according to Note 13 and also according to RULE VI.

Is required is a regular passive verb, &c., and agrees with its nominative, thou shalt not kill, according to RULE VII.

"To see the sun is pleasant."

Pleasant is an adjective, &c., and agrees with "to see the sun," according to Note 14.

In those sentences every word should first be parsed separately; as, *to* is a preposition, sign of the infinitive mood; *see* is a principal verb; *to see* is an irregular, active transitive verb, in the infinitive mood, present tense, and has no regard to number or person; *the* is the definite article, and belongs to sun, according to RULE III. *Sun* is a proper noun, &c., and governed by the verb *to see*, according to RULE VIII. *To see the sun* is a part of a sentence, and is nominative case to the verb *is*, according to Note 13. *Is* is an irregular neuter verb, &c., and agrees with its nomina tive, *to see the sun*, according to RULE VII.

SENTENCES TO BE WRITTEN.

Will you compose one or more sentences having an infinitive governed by a participle? One using an infinitive after a noun? One describing the manner of playing ball? One on the duty of children to mind their parents? One, or more, on industry? One on the business you intend to pursue for life?

SINGULAR NOUNS CONNECTED BY—AND.

In the phrase, "John and James are here," the sense is, that "John and James are both here." Two persons are therefore spoken of, which renders it necessary to use the plural verb *are*, to agree with two nouns which, individually, are singular. Hence,

RULE XVIII.

Two or more nouns or pronouns, of the singular number, connected together by *and*, either expressed or understood, must have verbs, nouns and pronouns agreeing with them in the plural number; as, "Socrates *and* Plato *were* wise; *they* were eminent *philosophers*."

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"William and James run." "Mary and Harriet study, and they will therefore excel." "You and I are in fault." "John and Thomas say they intend to study Latin."

REMARK.—*William* is one of the nominatives to the verb *run*. *James* is in the nominative case to the verb *run*, and is connected with the noun *William*, by RULE XI. *Run* agrees with *William* and *James* by RULE XVIII.

DEMONSTRATION OF RULE XVIII.

This rule is partly of necessity, and partly of brevity. It is of necessity when the attribute belongs to all of the nouns taken conjointly, but will not agree with each of them taken separately; as, "*John*, *James*, and *Joseph* have built the house." Here the verb agrees with all the nouns taken conjointly, but will not agree with each of them taken separately, for we cannot say that "John has built the house," for then James and Joseph could have no part in the building of it, and consequently here the verb must be in the plural number. But in the sentence, "John, James, and Joseph run," the attribute belongs to all taken conjointly, and also to each noun taken separately, for we can say "John runs," "James runs," and "Joseph runs," without violating any other rule of grammar; but for the sake of brevity we use the verb in the plural number, and so retain the rule as it is with its appendages and exceptions.

EXCEPTION 1. When *and* connects two or more nouns in the singular, which refer to the same person or thing, the verb must be singular; as, "Pliny, the philosopher and naturalist, has greatly enriched science."

EXCEPTION 2. When two or more nouns in the singular, connected by *and*, have *each* or *every* joined with them, the verb must be in the singular number; as, "Every person, every house, and every blade of grass was destroyed."

"Every man, and every woman, and every child *were* taken," is incorrect. *Were* should be changed for *was*, because reference is had to each person, individually considered, which in respect to the verb, is the same in effect as if one person only was spoken of.

NOTE 15. *Every* is sometimes associated with a plural noun, in which case the verb must be singular; as, "Every hundred years constitutes a century."

The reason of this is, that "every hundred years," signifies *a single period of time*, and is in reality singular.

NOTE 16. A verb in the plural will agree with a collective noun in the singular, when a part only of the individuals are meant; as, "The council were divided in their sentiments." But when the noun expresses the idea of unity, the verb should be singular; as, "The council was composed wholly of farmers."

REMARK. In the first of the foregoing examples, we use the plural verb *were divided*, because we refer to the individuals composing the council; but if no allusion of this sort had been made, and we had spoken of it as one entire body, we should have used the singular verb, according to the common rule; as, "The council was composed wholly of farmers."

We apply to *council*, in the first example, NOTE 16; to *were divided* the same note; and to *council* and *was composed* in the second example, RULES VI and VII.

When two or more rules or notes apply to the same words, it will be sufficient to apply only one of them in parsing.

TWO NEGATIVES IN THE SAME SENTENCE.

Negative means *denying*, and *affirmative*, *asserting* or *declaring* positively. A sentence in which something is denied is a negative one, and a sentence in which something is affirmed or positively asserted, is an affirmative one. "Vice degrades us," is an affirmative sentence, and "Labor does not injure us," is a negative one. *No*, *not*, *nothing*, *none at all*, *by no means*, *in no wise*, *neither*, *none*, &c., are negative terms.

The phrase, "I have nothing," has one negative, and means, "I have not any thing." The phrase, "I have not nothing," cannot mean the same as "I have nothing," but must mean, on the contrary, "I have something. "This last expression, you perceive, is an affirmative sentence, and signifies the same as, "I have not nothing." Two negatives, therefore, are equal to an affirmative, Hence,

RULE XIX.

Two negatives in the same sentence are equivalent to an affirmative, as "Such things are *not un*common;" that is, they are common.

NOTE.—When one of the two negatives employed is joined to another word, it forms a pleasing and delicate variety of expression; as, "His language, though inellegant is *not un*grammatical;" that is it is grammatical.

But, as two negatives, by destroying each other, are equivalent to an affirmative, they should not be used when we wish to convey a *negative* meaning. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate; "I can*not* by *no* means allow him what his argument must prove." It should be "I cannot by any means," &c., or, "I *can* by *no* means."

SENTENCES TO BE CORRECTED AND PARSED.

"He spends all the day in idleness, and I cannot prevail on him to do nothing." "He cannot get no employment in town." "I cannot by no means consent." "I shall not take no interest in the affair." "There cannot be nothing more insignificant than vanity." "He is so indolent that he will not do nothing," "I did not say nothing." "He cannot do nothing acceptable to John."

REMARK.—For *no* in the above examples read *any*, and for *nothing* read any thing in accordance with RULE XIX.

SENTENCES TO BE WRITTEN.

Will you compose one sentence describing the business of a *teacher?* One, the business of a *doctor?* One, the business of a *lawyer?* One, of a *dentist?* One, of a *surgeon?* One, of a *farmer?* One, of a *blacksmith?* One, of a *merchant?* One, of a *miller?* One, of an *apothecary?* One of a *legislator.*

VERBS GOVERNING TWO OBJECTIVE CASES.

When I say "He taught me grammar," I mean, "He taught grammar to me." *Grammar*, then, is the object of the verb, and *me* is governed by the preposition *to* understood. In the first example we have two objective cases after the verb *taught;* and since there are many instances like the preceding, in which transitive verbs are followed by two objective cases—hence the following:

RULE XX.

Two objective cases, the one of a person and the other of a thing, may follow transitive verbs, of *asking*, *teaching*, *giving*, &c.; a preposition being understood, as, "He taught me grammar.

REMARK.—In the foregoing example, *me* and *grammar* are both governed by *taught*, according to RULE XX.

N. B.—The preposition is not necessary.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"William asked me some questions." "My instructor gave me a valuable book for my attention to study." "They allowed him his seat in Congress." "John gave me a detailed account of the whole transaction." "The French denied him the privilege of an American citizen." "She forbade him the presence of the emperor."

DEMONSTRATION OF RULE XX.

RULE.—Two objective cases, one of a person and the other of a thing, may follow transitive verbs, of *asking*, *teaching*, *giving*, *naming*, *calling*, *electing*, &c.

The reason of this rule is because such verbs as *teach* introduce two different *ideas* more than they express, and require two nouns or words to express those *ideas;* one is called the *mediate* or *first* object of the verb, and the other the *immediate* or *second* object of the verb; or the *direct* and *indirect* objects of the verb. Now, when one of these objective cases is said to be governed by a preposition, it cannot deprive the verb of the government of its two cases. For (as has been explained under RULE X), the preposition and its object are the complex complement of its subject, and its subject in this case must be the object of the verb, and governed by it; and as the verb governs its object, so it also governs all of the appendages or adjuncts of its object. Again, in the sentence "He taught me grammar," *me* is the *mediate* or principal object of the verb, and *grammar* is the *immediate* or indirect object of the same verb, and ought not to be placed as its first object; as, "He

taught grammar to me." Now, let us examine this construction; the verb *teach* signifies to instruct, but grammar is an unthinking science and not capable of receiving instruction, nor of in any manner being affected by the act called *teach*. And although such expressions are very common, they will not stand the test of reason and criticism. Again, when changing such sentences from the active to the passive voice, the nominative or subject of the verb in the active voice should always become the object of a preposition in the passive voice, and the direct or first object of the verb in the active voice should be made the subject of the verb in the passive voice, and its indirect or second object, will remain as its object; as, "I was taught grammar by him." If we make *grammar* the nominative case, or subject of the verb, in the passive voice, and say, "Grammar was taught by him to me," the same objection will arise that does in making grammar the first object of the verb in the active voice.

N. B.—This demonstration will also apply to RULE XXI.

RULE XXI.

An objective case may follow passive verbs of *asking*, *giving*, *teaching*, &c.; as, "I was taught grammar."

The natural construction of the passive voice requires the object of the active verb to become the nominative or subject of the passive verb; as, "He taught me grammar;" "I was taught grammar by him." Thus, you perceive that in changing a sentence from the active to the passive voice, there is a transposition of subject and object.

In parsing "I was taught grammar," apply to *I*, RULE VI; to *was taught*, RULE VII; and to *grammar*, RULE XXI.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"John taught me music." "I was asked a question." "He was allowed his seat in Congress." "I was taught music by John." "I was offered a place in a store." "Pupils are taught reading in almost every school."

RULE XXII.

Home, and nouns signifying which way, how far, how long, or time when, &c., are in the objective case; a preposition being understood.

When I say, "He came home last May," the sense is, when fully expressed, "He came *to his* home *in* last May." "John continued four years at the university;" that is *during* four years." "The horse ran a mile;" that is, "*over* the space of a mile." "John went that way;" that is, "*over* that way." The foregoing rule is based on these facts.

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"He came home last May." "John continued four years at the university." "John went home once a month." "Charles studies six hours every day." "Susan rides out every day." "William sleeps comfortably all night." "John rode that way." "James lived six years at Boston, twelve years at Dedham."

NOTE 17.—After the words *like* and *unlike*, the preposition *to* or *unto* is frequently understood; as, "He is like his father;" that is, "like *to* his fateer." "She is unlike her sister;" that is, "unlike *to* her sister."

EXERCISES IN SYNTAX.

"He is like his brother," "William, unlike his father, falsified his word." "She is unlike any other mortal." "John behaves like a man in a violent rage."

NOTE 18.—Nouns signifying duration, extension, quantity, quality or valuation, are in the objective case, without any governing word. The following are examples:

"The Atlantic ocean is three thousand miles wide." "The cart weighs fifteen hundred pounds." The wall which separates China from Tartary, commonly called the 'great Chinese wall,' is fifteen hundred miles long, and from twenty to thirty feet in height." "William's knife is worth ten pence, or twenty cents." "For that article which is richly worth a dollar, we cannot always get fifty cents." "The chasm is fifty feet broad and sixty feet deep."

NOTE 19.—the conjunction *as*, after *such*, *many* and *same*, is generally considered a relative pronoun; as in the following examples:

"He receives into his school as many scholars as apply." "Our instructor punishes severely all such as disobey his commands." "He took such books as pleased him." "He exhibited the same course of conduct as was once before exhibited on the same occasion."

REMARK.—*As* is a conjunction, used as a relative pronoun, according to NOTE 19. Has for its antecedent the noun scholars, with which it agrees in gender, number and person, according to RULE V. It is, therefore, common gender, plural number and third person, and is nominative case to the verb *apply*, according to the first part of RULE XXIV.

NOTE 20.—The conjunction *than*, seems to have the force of a preposition before the relative *whom*, in a sentence where a comparison is made; as follows:

"Which, when Beelzebub perceived, than whom, Satan excepted, none higher sat." "Alfred, than whom, Solomon excepted, a wiser king never reigned, was one of the earliest English kings."

REMARK.—*Whom* is governed by the conjunction *than*, used as a preposition, according to NOTE 20. *Satan* is nominative case absolute, according to RULE XVII, and *excepted* is the perfect participle of the verb *to except*, and refers to *Satan*, according to RULE XIII. It is somewhat remarkable that, if, in the last two examples, the personal pronoun *he* was substituted for *whom*, it would be in the nominative case; as, "A wiser king never reigned than *he;*" that is, "than he was."

WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

Many words belong to different classes; thus, *iron* may be either a *noun*, or a *verb*, or an *adjective;* as, "*Iron* is a hard metal;" "*To iron* clothes;" "*An iron* rod."

Some of the words commonly employed as different parts of speech are here mentioned.

As is a *relative pronoun*, when it follows *many*, *such* or *same;* as, "Let such *as* hear take heed."

As is an *adverb*, when it is joined to an adverb or adjective in the sense of *so;* as, "He does *as* well as he can."

As is a *conjunction* in all cases except when it is an adverb or relative; as, "He did *as* I directed him."

BEFORE, AFTER, TILL, and UNTIL are *prepositions* when followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; as, "Come *before* dinner." "Come *after* dinner." "Wait *till* midnight." "Wait *until* your turn."

BEFORE, AFTER, TILL, and UNTIL are *adverbs* when not followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case; as, "Come *before* I have dined." "Come *after* I have dined." "Wait *till* I have dined." "Wait *until* I have dined."

BOTH is an *adjective pronoun* when it means "the two;" as, "*Both* the men are guilty."

BOTH is a *conjunction* when it is followed by *and*; as, "We assisted him, *both* for his sake *and* our own."

BUT is a *preposition* when it means *except;* as, "All *but* (except) John came."

BUT is an *adverb* when it has the sense of *only;* as, "This is *but* (only) doing our duty."

BUT is a conjunction in all cases when it is neither an adverb nor a preposition; as, "He called, *but* I refused to go."

EITHER is a *distributive adjective pronoun* when it means *one of the two;*" as, "*Either* of the boys may do it."

EITHER is a *conjunction*, when it corresponds to *or;* as, "*Either* the one *or* the other."

NEITHER is a *distributive adjective pronoun* when it means *not one of the two;* as, "*Neither* of the boys did it."

NEITHER is a *conjunction* in all other cases.

FOR is a *conjunction* when it means the same as *because*, and is used in giving a reason; as, "I obey him *for* he is my father;" that is, because he is my father.

FOR is a *preposition* in all other cases.

MUCH is a *noun* when it stands for *quantity;* as, "Where *much* is given *much* will be required."

MUCH is an *adjective* when it is joined to a noun; as, "*Much* labor fatigues us."

MUCH is an *adverb* when it qualifies the same parts of speech that the adverb does; as, "Thou art *much* mightier than I."

MORE is a *noun* when it implies *quantity;* as, "The *more* we have, the *more* we want."

MORE and MOST are *adjectives* when they qualify a noun; as, "The *more* joy I have, the *more* sorrow I expect." "*Most* men are mistaken in their pursuit of happiness."

MORE and MOST are *adverbs* when used in comparison; as, "This boy is *more* obedient than that;" "The soil of Cuba is *most* fertile."

NOTWITHSTANDING is a *preposition* when followed by a noun or a pronoun in the objective case; as, "*Notwithstanding* his merit."

NOTWITHSTANDING is a *conjunction* in all other cases; as, "He is respected *notwithstanding* he is poor."

SINCE is a *conjunction* when it means *for the reason that*, or, *because;* as, "*Since* it is your wish, I will certainly do it."

SINCE is a *preposition* when placed before a noun denoting a period of time; as, "I have had no food *since* Monday."

SINCE is an *adverb* in all other cases.

THAT is a *relative pronoun* when *who*, *whom*, or *which*, may be used in its place; as, "He is the wisest man *that* lives in our village."

THAT is a *demonstrative adjective pronoun* when it is joined with a noun to point it out; as, "*That* man is intelligent."

THAT is a *conjunction* in all other cases.

THE is an *article* when placed before a noun; as, "*The* man."

THE is an *adverb* when it is placed before an adjective or an adverb; as, "*The* wiser he is, *the* better he is." In such cases the two words may be called an adverbial phrase.

THEN is a *conjunction* when it means *in that case*, or *therefore;* as, "If all this be so, *then* I am right." "If he has commanded it, *then* I must obey."

THEN is an *adverb* when it refers to *time;* as, "Did you hear it thunder *then?*"

WHAT is a *compound pronoun* when *that which* or *those which* can be used in its stead; as, "Eat *what* is set before you;" that is, "Eat *that which* is set before you."

WHAT is an *interrogative relative pronoun* when used in asking questions; as, "*What* do you want?"

WHAT is an *adjective pronoun* when joined with a noun, but not asking a question; as, "*What* wonders he performed."

WHAT is a *compound adjective pronoun* when joined with nouns, and has the sense of two or more words; as, "In *what* manner he succeeded, is unknown."

WHAT is an *interjection* when uttered as a mere exclamation or to express wonder; as, "*What!* abuse your mother!" "*What!* take my money!"

WHILE is a *noun* when it means a portion of time; as, "Let us sing a while."

WHILE is a *verb* when it means *to pass* or *spend* time; as, "They managed *to while* away the hours very pleasantly."

WHILE is an *adverb* when it means "*during the time that;*" as, "The act was done *while* I was absent."

YET is a *conjunction* when it follows *though* or any other corresponding conjunction; as, "Though he reproves me, *yet* I esteem him."

YET is an *adverb* when it means "*up to* a certain time," or "*over and above;*" as, "Has the boy come *yet?*" "I will give you *yet* one more reason."

If you understand the definitions of the parts of speech, you will have no difficulty in ascertaining to which part of speech any word belongs. You should therefore become practically and thoroughly acquainted with the applications of those definitions, and also the foregoing rules and notes.

REMARK.—For IDIOMS, ANOMALIES and INTRICACIES, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 159, &c., and for CONTRACTIONS, OMISSIONS, INVERTED or TRANSPOSED SENTENCES, see page 162, &c.

SYNTAX.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

REMARKS.—Aware that there is, in the public mind, a strong and merited predilection for the doctrines contained in Mr. Murray's grammar, I have thought proper, not merely from motives of policy, but from choice, to select my principles chiefly from that work, and, moreover to adopt, as far as consistent with my own views, the language of that eminent philologist.

To demonstrate the utility and enforce the necessity of exercising the learner in correcting *false syntax*, I need no other argument than the interesting and undeniable fact, that Mr. Murray's labors, in this department, have effected a complete revolution in the English language, in point of verbal accuracy. Who does not know, that the best writers of this day are not guilty of *one* grammatical inaccuracy, when those authors who wrote before Mr. Murray flourished, are guilty of *five?* And what has produced this important change for the better? Ask the hundreds of thousands who have studied Mr. Murray's exercises in FALSE SYNTAX.

ANALYSIS.

Analysis, in Grammar, treats of the separation of a sentence into the parts which compose it.

The analysis of sentences is a matter of logic rather than of grammar. Some attention to analysis, however, even in elementary studies, is important. By means of it, the syntactical relations of words are more clearly apprehended. It helps, also, to cultivate the logical faculty, which is at the basis of all sound knowledge.

What does analysis treat of? What is gained by its study?

ANALYSIS may be divided into three parts: I. Parts of a sentence. II. Kinds of sentences. III. Explanation of terms.

I.—PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

A Sentence is an assemblage of words, forming complete sense; as, "Life is short."

A sentence may consist of a single word; as, "Go."

Every sentence consists of two parts: the SUBJECT and the PREDICATE.

The subject is that of which something is affirmed; as, "*Snow* is white." "*John* reads."

The predicate is that which is affirmed or asserted of the subject; as, "Snow *is white.*" "John *reads.*" It includes both the verb and its object.

There cannot be a sentence without a subject, expressed or understood.

The predicate properly consists of two parts: the *attribute* affirmed of the subject, and the *copula* by which the affirmation is made. Thus, in the first example, *is white* is the *predicate*, of which *white* is the *attribute*, and *is* the *copula*.

The attribute and copula are often expressed by one word, which in that case must always be a verb, as in the second example; "John *reads.*"—John *is reading.*

The *copula* is the verb *to be*, or some variation of it, and is either a visible or latent part of every verb and proposition.

The predicate may be a *noun* or *pronoun*, an *adjective*, a *preposition with its case*, or an *adverb;* also an *infinitive* or *clause of a sentence* as an attribute, together with the *copula* by which it is connected with, and affirmed of, the subject; or it may be a verb which includes in itself both *attribute* and *copula*. (See *grammatical* and *logical* predicate.)

How is it divided? What is a sentence? What is the subject? The predicate? The copula? The attribute?

SUBJECT.

1. The Subject is either grammatical or logical.

The grammatical subject is simply the noun or pronoun which is nominative to the verb. The logical subject consists of the grammatical subject with its various modifications.

Thus, "The consciousness of a well spent life is pleasant." Here *consciousness* is the grammatical, and *the consciousness of a well spent life* the logical subject.

If the grammatical subject is not modified, it is the same as the logical subject. Thus, in the sentence, "John reads," John is both the grammatical and the logical subject.

2. The subject is also either simple or compound.

A simple subject is a single noun, or word standing for a noun, either alone or variously modified; as, "*Life* is short;" "*The longest life of man* is short."

A compound subject consists of two or more simple subjects to which one predicate belongs; as, "*The moon* and *stars* shone?" *Two* and *three* make five;" "*This most excellent man* and *that consummate villain*, were born in London."

MODIFIED SUBJECTS.

Words are said to modify or limit others, when they serve to explain, describe, enlarge, restrict or otherwise qualify their meaning.

A grammatical subject may be modified or limited in different ways.

1. By a noun in the same case annexed to it for the sake of explanation or description; as, "John, the *carpenter*, came."

2. By a noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, "*Milton's* writings are sublime." "*My* sister is here."

How many kinds of subjects? What is the grammatical subject? The logical? What is a simple subject? A compound? When are words said to modify or limit others? What is the first way in which a grammatical subject may be modified? The second?

3. By an adjunct; as, "The love *of learning* is commendable."

4. By an article, adjective or participle; as, "*The* man has arrived; "*Good* men are few;" "Brothers *divided* are a sad sight;" "He, *shouting*, made the onset."

5. By a relative clause; as, "The boy *who studies* will improve."

6. By an infinitive; as, "A desire *to learn* is praiseworthy."

7. By an entire clause; as, "Lessons *which are easy* are apt to be neglected;" "A belief *that God is merciful* affords consolation."

WAYS IN WHICH THE ADJUNCTS OF THE SUBJECT ARE MODIFIED BY OTHER ADJUNCTS.

Adjuncts of the subject may themselves be modified by other words, as follows:

1. A noun used as an adjunct of the subject may be modified in all respects as the principal noun; as, "The carpenter *who built the house* has departed."

2. An adjective modifying a noun may itself be modified—

(1.) By an *adjunct;* as, "A pen is useful for writing."
(2.) By an *adverb;* as, "That very large tree has fallen."
(3.) By an *infinitive;* as, "He is ready *to go*."

3. An adverb used to modify an adjunct adjective, may itself be modified—

(1.) By another *adverb;* as, "*More* openly." (2.) By an *adjunct;* as, "Agreeably *to nature*."

4. A Participle or an Infinitive used as an adjunct of the subject, may be modified: (1.) By an object. (2.) By an adjunct. (3.) By an infinitive. (4.) By an adverb.

The third? The fourth? The fifth? The sixth? The seventh? How may an adjective be modified? An adverb? A participle? An infinitive?

Examples of the Participle.—"The man, having written *the letter*, mailed it." "The man, living *in ease*, became indolent." "The man, wishing *to sleep*, retired to his room." "The man, *thoroughly* frightened, fled from the house."

Examples of the Infinitive.—"A desire to gain *honor*." "A desire to live *in ease*." "A resolution to cease *to do* evil." "A resolution to cease *immediately* from evil courses."

A compound grammatical subject, considered as one complex idea, may itself be modified; as, "All bad books are pernicious." "The first two verses were sung."

All modifies not *books* alone, but the complex idea, *bad* books. *First* modifies *two verses*.

INFINITIVES, ETC., AS SUBJECTS.

An infinitive, a participial noun, or an entire clause, may be the subject of a verb; as, "*To lie* is base;" "*Lying* is base;" "*That men should lie* is base."

So, also, a clause, consisting of an infinitive, with its subject in the objective preceded by *for;* as, "*For men to lie* is base."

The verbs and participial nouns, in such cases, may be modified like the verb of a predicate." Thus, "To hate our enemies is forbidden."

The infinitive mood, the participial noun, the finite verb with its subject, and the infinitive with its subject in the objective, may be considered the grammatical subject. *That* and *for* may be considered as belonging to the subject.

In such cases, when the subject comes after the predicate, the pronoun *it* is used; as, "*It* is base *that men should lie*."

In this and similar sentences, the word *it* is not the subject; it serves only to introduce the sentence in a particular manner.

What does *all* modify in the sentence, "All bad books are pernicious." What may be the subject of a verb? What purpose does the pronoun *it* serve in such sentences as this, "It is base that men should lie."

The word *there* is often used to introduce a sentence when the subject comes after the predicate; as, "There are ten men here."

N. B.—In the following pages, when the term *subject* alone is used, the grammatical subject is meant.

THE PREDICATE.

1. The Predicate, like the subject, is either *grammatical* or *logical.*

The grammatical predicate is simply a verb. The logical predicate consists of the grammatical predicate with its various modifications. Thus, "Scipio *routed* the forces of Hannibal." Here, *routed* is the grammatical, and *routed the forces of Hannibal* the logical predicate.

If the grammatical predicate is not modified, it is the same as the logical.

The logical predicate is the one treated of in analysis.

2. The predicate, like the subject, is also either *simple* or *compound.*

A Simple predicate is one which contains a single finite verb; as, "The man *lives;*" "Cæsar *was* the conqueror of Gaul."

A Compound predicate consists of two or more simple predicates belonging to the same subject; as, "He *laughs* and *weeps.*"

A Grammatical predicate may be modified, or limited, in different ways:

(1.) By a noun or pronoun, in the same case as the subject; as, "He was called *John;*" "She moves a *Goddess;*" "It is *he.*"

How is *there* often used? What is the grammatical predicate? The logical? What is a simple predicate? A compound predicate? In how many ways may the predicate be modified? Explain them.

(2.) By a noun, or pronoun, in the objective case; as, "John struck *James;*" "I saw *them;*" "We heard *noises.*"

(3.) By an adjective referring to the subject; as, "Good men are *few;*" "Aristides was called *just.*"

(4.) By an adjunct; as, "William spoke *to Thomas,*"

(5.) By an adverb; as, "John learns *rapidly.*"

(6.) By an infinitive; as, "George wishes *to learn.*"

(7.) By phrases; as, "The man went *to his home in great wrath.*" Here the phrases, "to his home;" and, "in great wrath," modify the predicate "went."

(8.) By clauses; as, "The man lived in the house *which was upon the hill-side.*" Here the clause, "which was upon the hill-side," is one of the modifiers of the predicate "lived." "He asked *that the time might be extended.*"

II.—KINDS OF SENTENCES.

Two ways of classifying sentences.

Sentences are divided into classes or kinds: first in reference to their use, secondly in reference to their structure.

1. Sentences, as to their use, are divided into three kinds, namely, DECLARATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, and IMPERATIVE.

A Declarative Sentence is one which is used simply to declare or deny.

A declarative sentence must always contain a verb in the indicative or potential mood; as, "He has not failed;" "A life spent in doing good could not be a failure."

An Interrogative Sentence is one which is used to ask a question.

An interrogative sentence must contain a verb in the indicative or potential mood; as, "Has he failed?" "Could a life spent in doing good be a failure?"

When can there be an objective predicate? How are sentences classified? How many kinds of sentences are there? What does a declarative sentence contain? An interrogative sentence?

An Imperative Sentence is one which is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit.

An imperative sentence must always contain a verb in the imperative mood; as, "John, sit up;" "Remember my counsel;" "Do visit me;" "Go in peace."

2. Sentences, as to their structure, are of two kinds, SIMPLE and COMPOUND.

A simple sentence is one which contains but one subject and one predicate.

A compound sentence is one which contains two or more sentences, connected by one or more conjunctions.

The simple sentences, of which a compound sentence is composed, are called *members* or *clauses*. Thus, "James was poor," is a simple sentence; "James was poor, though he might have been rich," is a compound sentence. In this compound sentence, "James was poor," and "he might have been rich," are *members or clauses*.

INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

The members of a compound sentence are either *independent* or *dependent*.

An independent clause is one which makes complete sense by itself.

A dependent clause is one which makes complete sense only in connection with another clause. Thus, "That man is happy, though he is affected with disease." Here the former clause is independent, the latter dependent.

That member of a compound sentence on which the other members depend, is called the *leading clause;* its subject the *leading subject*, and its verb the *leading verb*.

What is an imperative sentence used for? How are sentences considered as to their structure? What is a simple sentence? Compound sentence? What are the parts of a compound sentence called? What is an independent clause? A dependent? What is a leading clause?

CONNECTION OF CLAUSES.

The members of a compound sentence may be connected by relatives, conjunctions or adverbs. Thus, "He is respected by all who know him;" "He fled when danger appeared;" "You say that he is honest." In the first sentence the relative *who*, besides being the subject of the verb *know*, connects the clause to which it belongs to the leading clause; in the second sentence, the adverb *when* connects the clauses; in the third the conjunction *that*.

An infinitive with its subject may be united to another clause without a connective; as, "I believe John to be honest;" that is, "I believe that John is honest."

The connecting word is sometimes omitted; as, "This is the man I saw;" "Thou canst not say I did it; *whom* is omitted in the former sentence, and *that* in the latter.

Instead of a dependent clause connected by a conjunction, a noun and a participle sometimes stands as an abridged sentence; as, "The enemy having been subdued, he departed;" that is, when the enemy had been subdued.

III. EXPLANATION OF TERMS.

The terms subject, predicate, copula, phrase, clause and member frequently occur in speaking of sentences. They ought to be practically understood.

The Subject is simply the thing which is spoken of; and is denoted by the nominative case.

The Predicate is the saying made of the subject by the verb; and includes the attribute or verb and its object.

How may the members of a compound sentence be connected? What may be united to another clause without a connective? Is the word always expressed? What sometimes stands as an abridged sentence? What terms occur in speaking of sentences? What does the predicate include.

The Copula is the verb *to be* (or some variation of it, either expressed or understood), which forms the connecting link between the subject and attribute or predicate; and is either a visible or latent part of every sentence in the language, and therefore its use cannot be too well understood. "The wise man," and "The man is wise," introduce and express the same *idea*, yet, "*the wise man*" is only a phrase, and "*the man is wise*," is a complete sentence. Thus you may perceive, that the little verb *to be*, is a very important factor in the construction of the English language, and its proper use requires nice discrimination.

A Phrase is a number of words, connected in meaning, but not containing a predicate-verb, and not making by themselves complete sense.

The principal phrases are the following:

1. The APPOSITIONAL PHRASE; as, "June, *the month of roses*, has come at length."

2. The PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE; as, "The cause *of all this misery* was intemperance."

3. The ADJECTIVE PHRASE; as, "Youth, *full of expectation*, is ever sanguine."

4. The PARTICIPIAL PHRASE; as, "*Living on vegetables*, he was not strong.

5. The INFINITIVE PHRASE; as, "He determined *to live on vegetables only*."

6. The SUBJECT PHRASE. This is where a participial phrase or an infinitive phrase is used as the subject of the verb; as, "*Living on vegetables only* is not conducive to strength." "*To live on vegetables only* is not conducive to strength."

Will you explain the copula? What is a phrase? Will you name the principal phrases?

7. The ABSOLUTE PHRASE; as, "*The king being dead*, his eldest son succeeded to the throne."

8. The INDEPENDENT PHRASE. This includes all mere exclamations, and all words addressed to persons or things, and not grammatically dependent upon the other parts of the sentence; as, "*Out upon thee, villain!* He deserves the halter;" "*Detestable villain!* You deserve the halter." The exclamations and addresses often consist of a single word; as, "*Villain*, leave the house."

A Clause is a number of words, connected in meaning and containing a verb with its subject, and so making by themselves complete sense, but not independent, being used to modify some other word.

The principle clauses are the following:

1. The RELATIVE CLAUSE; as, "The man *who is faithful to duty* is to be honored."

2. The APPOSITIONAL CLAUSE; as, "The maxim, *put not off till to-morrow what can be done to-day*, has much wisdom."

3. The SUBJECT CLAUSE; as, "*That life is uncertain*, is known to all."

4. The OBJECT CLAUSE; as, "They knew *that the man was a villain.*"

5. The ADVERBIAL CLAUSE; as, "He remained at the station *until the train left.*"

6. The CONJUNCTIONAL CLAUSE; as, "He will meet you at the station, *if you come in time.*"

A Member is a sentence, complete and independent in itself, and not used to modify any word or clause, yet united by a conjunction with some other sentence to form a compound sentence.

What is a clause? Will you name the principal clauses? What is a member of a sentence?

"The sun, *when it had risen*, scorched the grass." "When it had risen" cannot stand alone. It is a clause, dependent upon "sun."

"The sun had risen, and the grass was scorched." Here are two sentences, each complete and independent in itself, but both united to form a compound sentence. These two sentences, taken separately, are called the members of the compound sentence.

REMARK.—For a full explanation of all the rules and notes of Syntax, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 179, &c.

What is the difference between a member of a sentence and a clause?

PART IV.

PROSODY.

Prosody treats of the modulations of the voice according to the usages of the language we speak, and the sentiments we wish to express; hence, in its most extensive sense, it comprises all the laws of elocution.

Prosody is commonly divided into two parts: the first teaches the true pronunciation of words, comprising *accent*, *quantity*, *emphasis*, *pause*, and *tone;* and the second, the laws of *versification*.

PRONUNCIATION.

ACCENT.

Accent is the laying of a peculiar stress of the voice on a certain letter or syllable in a word, that it may be better heard than the rest, or distinguished from them; as, in the word *presume*, the stress of the voice must be on the letter *u*, and second syllable *sume*, which take the accent.

QUANTITY.

The quantity of a syllable is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. It is considered LONG or SHORT.

A vowel or syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel, which occasions it to be slowly joined, in pronunciation, with the following letter; as, fāll, tāle, mōōd, hōuse, fēature.

A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant, which occasions the vowel to be quickly joined to the succeeding letter; as, ănt, bŏnnĕt, hŭngĕr.

A long syllable generally requires double the time of a short one in pronouncing it; thus, māte and nōte should be pronounced as slowly again as măt and nŏt.

What is prosody? What is accent? What is the quantity of a syllable? When is a vowel or syllable long? When short? Give examples of each? How much more time does the pronunciation of a long syllable occupy than a short one?

EMPHASIS.

By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words on which we design to lay a particular stress, and to show how they affect the rest of the sentence. Sometimes the emphatic words must be distinguished by a particular tone of voice, as well as by a greater stress.

PAUSES.

Pauses or rests, in speaking and reading, are a total cessation of the voice, during a perceptible, and, in many cases, a measurable space of time.

TONES.

Tones are different both from emphasis and pauses, consisting in the modulation of the voice, the notes or variations which we employ in the expression of our sentiments.

VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the arrangement of a certain number and variety of syllables, according to certain laws.

OF POETICAL FEET.

A certain number of syllables connected form a foot. They are called *feet*, because it is by their aid that the voice, as it were, steps along through the verse in a measured pace.

All feet used in poetry consist either of two, or of three syllables, and are reducible to eight kinds—four of two syllables, and four of three—as follows:

DISSYLLABLE.	TRISYLLABLE.
A Trochee, — ⏑	A Dactyl, — ⏑ ⏑
An Iambus, ⏑ —	An Amphibrach, ⏑ — ⏑
A Spondee, — —	An Anapæst, ⏑ ⏑ —
A Pyrrhic, ⏑ ⏑	A Tribrach, ⏑ ⏑ ⏑

A Trochee has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented; as, "Hā'tefŭl, pēev'ĭsh."

An Iambus has the first syllable unaccented, and the latter accented; as, "Bĕtrāy, cŏncīse."

What is emphasis? What are pauses? What are tones? What is versification? What constitutes a poetical foot, and why is it so called? Of how many syllables do poetical feet consist? How many kinds of feet are there, and what are they? What is a Trochee? an Iambus?

A Spondee has both the words or syllables accented; as, "The pāle mōōn."

A Pyrrhic has both the words or syllables unaccented; as, "ŏn thĕ hĭll tŏp."

A Dactyl has the first syllable accented, and the two latter unaccented; as, "Lăbŏrĕr, fāvŏrīte."

An Amphibrach has the first and last syllables unaccented, and the middle one accented; as, "Dĕlīghtfŭl, ĕntīcĭng."

An Anapæst has the first two syllables unaccented, and the last accented; as, "Cŏntrăvēne, cŏmprŏmīse."

A Tribrach has all its syllables unaccented; as, "Numĕrăblĕ, conquĕrăblĕ." (This measure is rarely found in English poetry.)

Some of these may be denominated *principal* feet, as pieces of poetry may be wholly or chiefly formed of any of them. Such are the Iambus, Trochee, Anapæst and Dactyl. The others may be termed *secondary* feet, because their chief use is to diversify the numbers, and to improve the verse.

If a verse is composed principally of iambuses, it is called *iambic* verse; if of trochees, *trochaic;* if of anapæsts, *anapæstic;* if of dactyls, *dactylic.*

Rhyme is a similarity of sound between the last syllables of different verses.

Blank verse is without rhyme.

Scanning is the dividing of a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

A verse which is complete is called *acatalectic;* one which is deficient is called *catalectic;* one which has a redundant syllable is called *hypercatalectic*, or *hypermeter.*

N. B.—In poetry, the accented syllable is long, whether the vowel in that syllable is long or short.

Remark.—For a general explanation of Prosody, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 263, &c.

What is a Spondee? a Pyrrhic? a Dactyl? an Amphibrach? an Anapæst? a Tribrach? Which are called *principal* feet? Which *secondary*? Why? What is Iambic verse? Trochaic? Anapæstic? Dactylic? What is rhyme? What is blank verse? What is scanning? What is a verse which is complete called? What is one which is deficient called? What is one which has a redundant syllable called?

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to mark the different pauses which the sense and an accurate pronunciation require.

The *comma* represents the shortest pause; the *semicolon*, a pause double that of the comma; the *colon*, double that of the semicolon; and the *period*, double that of the colon.

N. B.—Pauses are regulated by the good sense, and judgment of the reader or speaker.

Punctuation is a modern art. The ancients were entirely unacquainted with the use of points, and wrote, not only without any distinction of members and periods, but also without any distinction of words. This custom continued till the year 360 before Christ. How the ancients read their works, written in this manner, it is not easy to conceive. After the practice of joining words together had ceased, notes of distinction were placed at the end of every word. This practice continued a considerable time.

As it appears that the present usage of points did not take place while manuscripts and monumental inscriptions were the only known methods of conveying knowledge, we must conclude, that it was introduced with the art of printing. The introduction was, however, gradual; all the points did not appear at once. The colon, semicolon, and the note of admiration, were produced some time after the others. The whole set, as they are now used, became established, when learning and refinement had made considerable progress.

As the rules of punctuation are founded altogether on the grammatical construction of sentences, their application pre-supposes, on the part of the student, a knowledge of syntax. Although they admit of exceptions, and require a continual exercise of judgment and literary taste in applying them properly, they are of great utility, and justly merit our particular attention.

The great importance of acquiring a thorough knowledge of punctuation, and of attending strictly to the application of its rules, is established by the single fact that *the meaning of a sentence*

What is punctuation? What does the comma represent? The semicolon? The colon? The period? How did the ancients write?

is often totally perverted by the omission or misapplication of points. To illustrate the correctness of this remark, numerous examples might be selected. The following, border on the ridiculous: "Mr. Jared Hurton having gone to sea his wife, desires the prayers of this church;" "Tryon, who escaped from the jail on Friday last, is twenty-two years of age, has sandy hair, light eyes, thin visage, with a short nose turned up about six feet high," &c. Corrected: "Mr. Jared Hurton having gone to sea, his wife desires the prayers of this church;" thin visage, with a short nose turned up, about six feet high," &c.

"Woman, without her, man would be a savage."
"Woman without her man, would be a savage."

OF THE COMMA.

The Comma usually separates those parts of a sentence which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

RULE 1.—With respect to a simple sentence, the several words of which it is composed, have so near a relation to each other, that, in general, no points are requisite, except a full stop at the end of it; as, "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom." "Every part of nature swarms with living creatures."

A simple sentence, however, when it is a long one, and the nominative case is accompanied with inseparable adjuncts, may admit of a pause immediately before the verb; as, "The good taste of the present age, has not allowed us to neglect the cultivation of the English language." "To be totally indifferent to praise or censure, is a real defect in character"

RULE 2.—When the connection of the different parts of a simple sentence, is interrupted by an imperfect phrase, a comma is usually introduced before the beginning and at the end of the phrase; as, "I remember, *with gratitude*, his goodness to me." "His work is, *in many respects*, very imperfect." "It is, *therefore*, not much approved." But when the interruptions are slight and unimportant, the comma is better omitted; as, "Flattery is certainly pernicious." "There is *surely* a pleasure in beneficence."

RULE 3.—When two or more nouns occur in the same construction, they are parted by a comma; as, "The husband, wife and children, suffered extremely." They took away their furniture, clothes, and stock in trade."

From this rule there is mostly an exception, with regard to two nouns closely connected by a conjunction; as, "Virtue and vice form a strong contrast to each other." "Libertines call religion bigotry *or* superstition." If the parts connected are not short, a comma may be inserted, though the conjunction is expressed; as, "Romances may be said to be miserable rhapsodies, *or* dangerous incentives to evil."

RULE 4.—Two or more adjectives, belonging to the same substantive, are likewise separated by commas; as, "Plain, honest truth wants no artificial covering." "David was a brave, wise, and pious man."

But two adjectives immediately connected by a conjunction, are not separated by a comma; as, "Truth is fair *and* artless." "We must be wise *or* foolish; there is no medium."

RULE 5.—Two or more verbs, having the same nominative case, and immediately following one another, are also separated by commas; as, "Virtue supports in adversity, moderates in prosperity." "In a letter we may advise, exhort, comfort, request, and discuss."

Two verbs immediately connected by a conjunction, are an exception to the rule; as, "The study of natural history expands and elevates the mind."

Two or more participles are subject to a similar rule and exception.

RULE 6.—Two or more adverbs immediately succeeding each other, must be separated by commas; as, "We are fearfully, wonderfully framed." "We must act prudently, steadily, and vigorously."

When two adverbs are joined by a conjunction, they are not parted by a comma; as, "Some men sin deliberately *and* presumptuously."

RULE 7.—When participles are followed by something that depends upon them, they are generally separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "The king, *approving the plan*, put it in execution." "His talents, *formed for great enterprises*, could not fail of rendering him conspicuous."

RULE 8.—When a conjunction is parted by a phrase or sentence from the verb to which it belongs, such intervening phrase has usually a comma at each extremity; as, "They set out early, *and* before the dawn of day, arrived at the destined place."

RULE 9.—Expressions in a direct address are separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "*My son*, give me thy heart." "I am obliged to you, *my friends*, for your many favors."

RULE 10.—The case absolute, and the infinitive mood absolute, are separated by commas from the body of the sentence; as, "*His father* dying, he succeeded to the estate." "At length, their ministry performed, and race well run, they left the world in peace." "*To confess the truth*, I was much in fault."

RULE 11.—Nouns in apposition, that is, nouns added to other nouns in the same case, by way of explication or illustration, when accompanied with adjuncts, are set off by commas; as, "Paul, the Apostle of the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal and knowledge." "The butterfly, child of the summer, flutters in the sun·"

But if such nouns are single, or only form a proper name, they are not divided; as, "Paul the Apostle." "The Emperor Antoninus wrote an excellent book."

RULE 12.—Simple members of sentences, connected by comparatives, are, for the most part, distinguished by a comma; as, "*As* the hart panteth after the water-brooks, *so* doth my soul pant after thee." "*Better* is a dinner of herbs with love, *than* a stalled ox and hatred with it."

If the members in comparative sentences are short, the comma is, in general, better omitted; as, "How much *better* is it to get wisdom *than* gold!"

RULE 13.—When words are placed in opposition to each other, or with some marked variety, they require to be distinguished by a comma; as,

"Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull;
Strong, without rage; without o'erflowing, full."

"Good men, in this frail, imperfect state, are often found not only in union *with*, but in opposition *to*, the views and conduct of one another."

Sometimes, when the word with which the last preposition agrees is single, it is better to omit the comma before it; as, "Many states were in alliance *with*, and under the protection *of* Rome."

The same rule and restriction must be applied when two or more nouns refer to the same preposition; as, "He was composed both under the threatening, and at the approach, *of* a cruel and lingering death."

RULE 14.—A remarkable expression, or a short observation, somewhat in the manner of a quotation, may be properly marked with a comma; as, "It hurts a man's pride to say, I do not know." "Plutarch calls lying, the vice of slaves."

RULE 15.—Relative pronouns are connective words, and generally admit a comma before them; as, "He preaches sublimely, *who* lives a sober, righteous, and pious life."

But when two members or phrases are closely connected by a relative, restraining the general notion of the antecedent to a particular sense, the comma should be omitted; as, "Self denial is the sacrifice which virtue must make."

The fifteenth rule applies equally to cases in which the relative is not expressed, but understood; as, "It was from piety, warm and unaffected, that his morals derived strength."

RULE 16.—A simple member of a sentence, contained within another, or following another, must be distinguished by a comma; as, "To improve time whilst we are blessed with health, will smooth the bed of sickness." "Very often, while we are complaining of the vanity and the evils of human life, we make that vanity, and we increase those evils."

If, however, the members succeeding each other are very closely connected, the comma is unnecessary; as, "Revelation tells us how we may attain happiness."

When a verb in the infinitive mood follows its governing verb, with several words between them, those words should generally have a comma at the end of them; as, "It ill becomes good and wise men, to oppose and degrade one another."

Several verbs in the infinitive mood, having a common dependence, and succeeding one another, are also divided by commas; as, "To relieve the indigent, to comfort the afflicted, to protect the innocent, to reward the deserving, are humane and noble employments."

RULE 17.—When the verb *to be* is followed by a verb in the infinitive mood, which, by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the former is generally separated from the latter verb by a comma; as, "The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men." "The first and most obvious remedy against the infection is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men."

RULE 18.—When adjuncts or circumstances are of importance, and often when the natural order of them is inverted, they may be set off by commas; as, "Virtue must be formed and supported, not by unfrequent acts, but by daily and repeated exertions." "Vices, like shadows, towards the evening of life, grow great and monstrous."

RULE 19.—Where the verb is understood, a comma may often be properly introduced. This is a general rule, which, besides comprising some of the preceding rules, will apply to many cases not determined by any of them; as, "From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge."

RULE 20.—The words *nay*, *so*, *hence*, *again*, *first*, *secondly*, *formerly*, *now*, *lastly*, *once more*, *above all*, *on the contrary*, *in the next place*, *in short*, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must generally be separated from the context by a comma.

THE SEMICOLON.

The semicolon is used for dividing a compound sentence into two or more parts, not so closely connected as those which are separted by a comma, nor yet so little dependent on each other as those which are distinguished by a colon.

The semicolon is sometimes used when the preceding member of the sentence does not of itself give a complete sense, but depends on the following clause; and sometimes when the sense of that member would be complete without the concluding one, as in the following instance: "As the desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in everything that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them when it is governed by vanity and folly."

THE COLON.

The colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as separate, distinct sentences.

The colon may be properly applied in the three following cases:

1. When a member of a sentence is complete in itself, but followed by some supplemental remark, or further illustration of

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Will you repeat the rules on the use of the comma? When is the semicolon used? When is the colon used? In what three cases may the colon be properly applied?

the subject; as, "Nature felt her inability to extricate herself from the consequences of guilt: the gospel reveals the plan of divine interposition and aid."

2. When several semicolons have preceded, and a still greater pause is necessary, in order to mark the connecting or concluding sentiment; as, "A divine Legislator, uttering his voice from heaven; an almighty Governor, stretching forth his arm to punish or reward; informing us of perpetual rest prepared hereafter for the righteous, and of indignation and wrath awaiting the wicked: these are the considerations which overawe the world, which support integrity, and check guilt."

3. The colon is commonly used when an example, a quotation, or a speech is introduced; as, "The scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity, in these words: 'God is love.'"

THE PERIOD.

When a sentence is complete and independent, and not connected in construction with the following sentence, it is marked with a period.

The period should be used after every abbreviated word; as, M. S., P. S., N. B., A. D., O. S., N. S., &c.

THE DASH.

The dash, though often used improperly by hasty and incoherent writers, may be introduced with propriety where the sentence breaks off abruptly; where a significant pause is required; or where there is an unexpected turn in the sentence; as, "If thou art he, so much respected once—but, oh! how fallen! how degraded!"

INTERROGATION.

A note of interrogation is used at the end of an interrogative sentence; that is, when a question is asked; as, "Who will accompany me?" "Shall we always be friends?"

EXCLAMATION.

The note of exclamation is applied to expressions of sudden emotion, surprise, joy, grief, &c., and also to invocations or ad-

When is the period used? After abbreviated words what point should be used? Give examples. When may the dash be introduced with propriety? To what is the note of exclamation applied? Give an example.

dresses; as, "My friend! this conduct amazes me!" "Praise the Lord, O my soul! and forget not all his benefits!"

The interrogation and exclamation points are indeterminate as to their quantity or time, and may be equivalent, in that respect to a semicolon, a colon, or a period, as the sense may require. They mark an elevation of the voice.

REMARK.—For other marks used in writing and the figures of speech, see Carroll's Large Grammar, page 278, &c.

COMPOSITION.

It may be laid down as a maxim of eternal truth, that good *sense* is the foundation of all good writing. One who understands a subject well, will scarcely write ill upon it. Clear thinking makes clear writing.

Rhetoric, or the art of persuasion, requires in a writer, the union of good sense, and a lively and chaste imagination. It is, then, her province to teach him to embellish his thoughts with elegant and appropriate language, vivid imagery, and an agreeable variety of expression. It ought to be his aim,

"To mark the point where sense and dullness meet."

A full consideration of these topics, in a work of this kind, would be as impractical as it would be out of place, since it would require a volume for that purpose. They are fully treated of and exemplified in works on elocution, a subject which is, or should be, taken up as a separate branch of study.

HINTS FOR CORRECT AND ELEGANT WRITING.

Correct and elegant writing depends partly upon the choice of words and partly upon the form and structure of sentences.

1. In so far as respects single words, the chief things to be observed are, purity, propriety, and precision.

PURITY.

Purity consists in the rejection of such words and phrases as are not strictly English, nor in accordance with the practice of good writers and speakers. *Foreign*, *obsolete* and *unauthorized* words should be avoided.

Are the exclamation and interrogation points determinate as to their quantity or time?

PROPRIETY.

Propriety is the choice of those words which the best usage has appropriated to the ideas which we intend to express by them. It implies their correct and judicious application, in opposition to low expressions, and to words and phrases which would be less significant of the ideas which we wish to convey. It is the union of purity and propriety which renders style graceful and perspicuous.

PRECISION.

Precision signifies retrenching all superfluities, and pruning the expression in such a manner as to exhibit neither more nor less than an exact copy of the ideas intended to be conveyed.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

2. With respect to sentences, *clearness*, *unity*, *strength*, and a proper application of the *figures* of speech, are necessary.

CLEARNESS.

Clearness demands a proper arrangement of words.

1. Adverbs, relative pronouns, and explanatory phrases, must be placed as near as possible to the words which they affect, and in such a situation as the sense requires.

2. In prose, a poetic collocation must be avoided.

3. Pronouns must be so used as clearly to indicate the words for which they stand.

UNITY.

Unity retains one predominant object through a sentence, or series of clauses.

1. Separate into distinct sentences such clauses as have no immediate connection.

2. The principal words must, throughout a sentence, be the most prominent; and the leading nominative should, if possible, be the subject of every clause.

3. Avoid the introduction of parentheses, except when a lively remark may be thrown in, without too long suspending the sense of what goes before.

STRENGTH.

Strength gives to every word and every member its due importance.

1. Avoid tautology, and reject all superfluous words and members.

2. Place the most important words in the situation in which they will make the strongest impression.

3. A weaker assertion should not follow a stronger; and when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.

4. When two things are compared or contrasted with each other, when either resemblance or opposition is to be expressed, some resemblance in the language and construction should be preserved.

5. A sentence should not be concluded with a preposition, or any inconsiderable word or phrase, unless it be emphatic.

FIGURES OF SPEECH.

1. Figurative language must be used sparingly, and never, except when it serves to illustrate or enforce what is said.

2. Figures of speech, when used, should be such as appear natural; not remote or foreign from the subject, and not pursued too far.

3. Literal and figurative language ought never to be blended together.

4. When figurative language is used, the same figure should be preserved throughout, and different figures never jumbled together.

5. Express every distinct thought or fact in a distinct sentence, and be very sparing in the use of *ands* and *buts*.

DIFFERENT WAYS OF EXPRESSING THE SAME IDEA.

There are chiefly four ways in which the mode of expressing a thought may be varied.

1. By changing an active into a passive, or a passive into an active verb; as, "The sun *dissolves* the snow;" "The snow is *dissolved* by the sun."

2. By inversions or transpositions, which consist in changing the order in which the words stand in the sentence; as, "Competence may be acquired by industry;" "By industry, competence may be acquired."

3. By changing an affirmative into a negative, or a negative into an affirmative, of an entirely contrary character; as, "Virtue promotes happiness;" "Virtue does not promote misery."

4. By either a partial or an entire change of the words employed to express any sentiment; as, "Diligence and application are the best means of improvement;" "Nothing promotes improvement like diligence and application."

USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

It is proper to begin with a capital—

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period, and, if the two sentences are totally independent, after a note of interrogation or exclamation.

3. The appellations of the Deity; as, God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, the Lord, Providence, the Messiah, the Holy Spirit.

4. The proper names of persons, places, streets, mountains, rivers, ships; as, George, York, the Strand, the Alps, the Thames, the Seahorse.

5. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, Grecian, Roman, English, French, Italian, &c.

6. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon, or when it is in a direct form; as, "Always remember this ancient maxim: 'Know thyself.'"

The first word of an example may also very properly begin with a capital.

7. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books; as, Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language; Thompson's Seasons.

8. The first word of every line in poetry.

9. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* are written in capitals.

Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals when they are remarkably emphatical or the principal subject of the composition.

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